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## Dedicated to $\mathfrak{m y ~}$

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$\mathfrak{m b o s e}$ initials I baue always loved to connect with
Afly 追ittle Emeetbeart,
$\mathfrak{m i t b o u t}$ wbose patience, kinoness, belp, and indulgence, my contributions to the educational field of the professional accountant would not baue been possible.

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## INTRODUCTION

By Page Lawrence, C.P.A.

Nearly all historians, when tracing the growth of an art or science from mere empiricism to the establishment of recognized principles, are confronted with an apparent insurmountable gap or complete silence during the period known in history as the Dark Ages.

Archaeological and historical researches have convinced this civilization that in Ancient Babylon, Greece and Rome there was a high state of civilization-both industrial and social.

Today we may study Aristotle's polities with great profit in our attempts to understand the political and economic conditions confronting this generation. An acquaintance with the Greek philosophers is essential in understanding our present philosophical thought.

It would seem that, since we find so much help in consulting these ancient writers in an attempt to solve the political problems of today which are presented by this complex civilization, in a large measure at least our mentors must have been confronted with the same economic and industrial difficulties that we are attempting to solve now as accountants.

One is convinced that the ancient writers on political economy and commerce were closely allied with the scribes or accountants who recorded the business transactions of those days. This allegiance seems to have been lost after the Roman supremacy (and the consequent growth and spread of commerce), and it is only within recent years that the modern economist and accountant has acknowledged that a truer understanding of modern commerce can be had with cooperation and that the two sciences (economics and accounting) are finding so much in common that each is dependent upon the other for a full understanding of modern business conditions.

Mr. John P. Young, Editor of the San Francisco Chronicle, ably presented accounting in antiquity before the convention of the American Association of Public Accountants at San Francisco (Year Book 1911, page 153). He showed that Rome in Cicero's time was dependent upon the independent verification of accounts and statements thereof by one skilled in accountancy. The familiarity with which he mentions the accountant would seem to indicate that his place in the Roman social organization was well established.

However, after the recorded utterances of Cicero the historian finds in the pages of history no further mention of those individuals acknowledged to be skilled in accounts, which we are pleased to call accountants, until the writings of Pacioli in 1494 and Stevin in 1604.

It seems especially appropriate that one so greatly interested as the author in that work dear to the hearts of all progressive accountants, and who has done so much to place the education of the accountant on equal footing with that of law or medicine, should be the first of modern times to translate this first recorded book of the principles of debit and credit into the English language.

It is a significant fact that the rules and principles elucidated by Pacioli are contained in a book given over to mathematics. One cannot help but believe that the derivation of double-entry bookkeeping is an explanation of the algebraic equation used with such skill by the ancient Greek mathematicians, applied practically to the scientific recording of business transactions for, just as in algebra, the equation once established cannot be changed but by the addition of positive or negative quantities.

This work will give an added assurance that the apparently empirical rules of commerce are based upon an ancient scientific and mathematical foundation, to those who have attempted to instill into the commercial mind the idea that accountancy is a science, the prime requisite of a mastery of which is a thorough education in the theory of economics and allied sciences supplemented by practical experimentation in the application of formulae to practical business situations.

The accountant has to correct constantly, or at least modify, the attitude of the business man toward matters which are his dearest heirlooms handed down from the days of the Ancient Guild system, i. e., that the only way to learn how to do business is to do it along the rule-of-thumb method communicated from father to son by word of mouth.

Accountants, who remember the dearth of accountancy literature in this country up to a few short years ago, are dumbfounded at the mass of accountancy publications which are constantly flooding the market at this time. While I believe that the profession of accountancy as a whole recognizes the inestimable value of these publications, one cannot help but think in perusing their pages that they are largely influenced by the empirical methods of general business, rather than based on scientific principles. In other words, on "how" but never "why."

We are wont to look in vain through mazes of descriptions, forms and precedence of some particular business enterprise for a principle of accountancy which can be applied to the specific difficulty we have in hand. It should be the aim of some of the brilliant members of the profession of accountancy to take the great mass of historical records which have been published in the last few years of how this or that business should be kept and, with the aid of recognized authorities on economics, codify, with quotation of their source, the scattered and ill defined principles of accountancy for the benefit of accountancy education, and to this end no better examples of axiomatic principles can be had than in the books of Pacioli, Pietra and Stevin.

The author, recognizing from his experience as an educator in accountancy (coming as he did from Holland some twenty years ago without knowledge of American commercial practices or language) the lack of clearly expressed principles in accountancy, commenced researches which have finally culminated in this published translation in English of the first known writings on the subject of double entry bookkeeping.

At every turn, in the preachment of the scientific principles of his profession to the commercial mind, in his successful efforts for the passage of the Certified Public Accounts law in Colorado, then in his work as secretary of the first examining board in that state, in his labors as Dean of the School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance of The University of Denver, and as an instructor on practical and theoretical accountancy subjects and, finally as Chairman of the Educational Committee of The American Association of Public Accountants, the author has ever been confronted with the dearth of practical exemplification, historical or otherwise, of the true foundation of what in modern times might be called the Art of Accountancy.

To weld together into a well balanced whole the two plans of accountancy education, as embraced in the curriculi of universities and colleges offering training to the embryo accountant, has long been the goal of his educational endeavors, i. e., to leaven the purely academic training by instructors or professors whose own knowledge of accountancy is in the main pedagogical, with the practical knowledge as imparted by the practicing accountant and the business man. (The author, in the American Association of Public Accountants Year Books for 1911-12-13 and 14, has gone into this subject extensively, showing that educational institutions of the country have chosen either the one or the other of the two methods of teachingthe academic training in pure theory, treated in much the same manner as economic subjects are presented and without the same degree of accuracy, or the practical lecturing upon accountancy subjects by practicing accountants and business men, supplemented by the best text books obtainable-and urging the while the necessity for the development together of the two accountancy educational plans, as is done in Great Britain.)

While it is true that to men of little or no practical experience in accountancy must be given the credit for producing some of the finest examples of purely theoretical accounting which the literature of accountancy has today, the first mentioned criticism that this pedagogical instruction does not teach the actual application of the theory to modern business, again applies. On the other hand, with the practical accountant as the instructor or the writer of text books, too little cannot be said of the difficulty he has in imparting to students and laymen the principles which seem exceedingly clear to him. And it was through this research, this labor to combine in accountancy education theory with practice and practice with theory, that this book was born. It is apparent in reading the ancient works of Pacioli, of Stevin and Pietra, in their exhaustive explanations and their lengthy and precise instructions that in their endeavors to systematize the recording of the transactions of commerce of their time, they encountered many of the same sort of, if not the identical, problems with which we are confronted today. The modern translations of their works, with the author's own views presented as notes, it is believed will shed some light into the darkness which has so long shrouded the actual foundation of the practice and the theory of the profession of public accountancy.

Denver, Colorado, August, 1914.

## PREFACE

As no technical books worth while can be prepared without diligent and persistent research, it naturally follows that no such works can be produced unless there is material furnished to build upon, and the cheapest and easiest foundation is usually the writings of men who have excelled in the same line of endeavor. In other words, a library of books is absolutely essential to the advancement of thought on technical and professional subjects.

While studying to Americanize my knowledge of accountancy twenty years ago, I came to the conclusion that there were then on that subject few modern books and still fewer ancient ones. This conviction was constantly strengthened by conversation with my fellow-workers, and it remained unchanged until a few years ago.

When my duties came to include the teaching of accountancy and the direction of the thought of my students, the choice of books for their reading became a serious problem. It was then my privilege to start the collection of a considerable library of works on accountancy and its allied subjects.

However, I could learn of but few books of ancient date, and they were so scarce, difficult to get, and high priced, that most of them remain yet to be acquired. Among those which I did get is an original copy of the oldest published work on bookkeeping. The price for copies of this book ranges from $\$ 50$ to $\$ 250$, and it is thus not within the means of ordinary students and is even beyond the inclination of acquisition of many of the most wealthy libraries. It became my desire to have it reproduced, together with a free translation of its most important parts.

This desire increased when my research showed me that the first man to follow the teachings of this Italian book and to translate it into another language, was a fellow-countryman of mine, a Hollander named Jan Ympyn Christoffels. He translated it into the Holland, French, and English languages, and to this day we follow his lead, (as outlined in the title of his book), of calling double-entry bookkeeping by the use of day book, journal, and ledger, the Italian method of bookkeeping.

The Hollanders of ancient New Amsterdam (now New York) have left their unmistakable imprint on our American political and social life, by the introduction into this country of many things which originated in their mother-country and which were unknown even in England prior to their use in America. To this day many of these things remain unused in England, which is one reason why we are so different from the English. Among these things may be mentioned:*

The recording of deeds and mortgages in a public office ; the equal distribution of property among the children of a person dying intestate; the office of a district attorney in each county; the practice of giving a prisoner the free services of a lawyer for his defense; the township system, by which each town has local self-government; the practice of making prisoners work; the turning of prisons into work houses; the system of university education; free public school system; the red, white and blue striped flag; the principles contained in our Declaration of Independence; the granting of religions freedom; the cultivation of roses; the present banking system; the use of reading and spelling books for children; the telescope; the microscope; the thermometer; the discovery of capillary circulation of the blood; the pendulum clock; measuring degrees of latitude and longitude; the compass; the wind-mill with movable cap; the glass hothouse; the use of underclothing; the bedstead; the brick; the game of golf.

It has seemed to me fitting that another Hollander should present to his American professional brethren, and put within the reach of every student of accounting, for research and study, a reproduction of that prized Italian book, which, as we shall see, has influenced us to such an extent that the principles it enunciates as of use in its day, remain the foundation of our present methods of bookkeeping.

It was not my aim to give a complete literal translation, because much of the text is reiteration and pertains to subject-matter purely local and now entirely obsolete, which would necessitate lengthy explanations of ancient methods of no present value or use. Therefore, numerous foreign terms and ancient names have been left untranslated. Furthermore, as the book was written in contemporary Italian, or, in other words, in the local dialect of Venice, which is neither Italian nor Latin, it is extremely difficult to get local talent sufficiently trained in this work to translate it all literally.

The old style of writing is unattractive and tiresome to follow. While it is customary and proper in translations to follow the original style as much as possible, and to change it no more than is necessary to make it readily understood and easily read in modern language, it was found extremely difficult to do that in this instance, and furthermore, it would have served no practical purpose. And then, who is there at the present time but a scholar of some eminence and a linguist of no mean accomplishment, who will presume to say what is correct and what is incorrect? Such authorities never agree among themselves, and it would be useless to attempt to please them all. Therefore, we are extending the translations, not so much for academic purposes as for the practical use of less pedantic people, upon the theory that they who wish to obtain knowledge of any science must first learn its history and then trace its gradual growth. There is hardly another science about which there is as much doubt and darkness as bookkeeping, and therefore we merely present this translation as a contribution to the history of bookkeeping.
*William Elifott Griffls in "The Ladies' Home Journal."

Criticism has been made of the title of this book, "Ancient Double-Entry Bookkeeping," in the use of the word "Ancient" as applied to the year 1493 A. D. The long obscurity of the "Dark Ages," during which there was no light whatever upon this important subject, has, in our belief, made the treatise of Pacioli ancient, and, further the abrupt "leap through the dark'" from this ancient work to the works of modern times, we believe justifies the title.

The reader is further referred to the German translation of Pacioli's book by E. L. Jäger which appeared in 1876, and the Russian translation by E. G. Waldenberg which was printed in St. Petersburg in 1893.

Pacioli's book was first photographed and plates made from these photographs. Proof sheets from these plates were then sent to Rome, Italy, and there transcribed on a typewriter in modern letters, to facilitate translating. The typewritten transcript was then translated into English, which was then compared with an existing German translation by Dr. Jäger. Discrepancies were carefully noted by reference to the original book, and the best possible corrections made. This method brought to the surface obvious and glaring short-comings in the German translation, and it also demonstrated our own inability to comprehend and properly translate some of the old terms and words, which even the Italy of today has long forgotten. With it all then, we are free to admit that in numerous places our English translation is defective. However, we are not imposing on those who are better scholars than we, because we give the original Italian side by side with our English version, and any one so disposed can easily check it and correct our copy to suit his fancy.

The only object of our endeavors is to give something where there was nothing to those who heretofore could not avail themselves of the contents of this old and pioneer work on a subject now universally recognized as being the foundation of all our modern industrial and commercial problems.

We ask your indulgence for errors and omissions, and for the price of this book, as the work had to be done hastily and cheaply, for the financial success of this enterprise is exceedingly problematical, owing to the excessive cost of preparation and reproduction, and the very small possible circulation. The work therefore should be viewed largely as a labor of love, a voluntary philanthropic contribution to the profession of accountancy.

Acknowledgment is due and most gladly given to: my wife, a Certified Public Accountant of the State of Colorado, who aided with the German translation; to Mr. Robert Ferrari, LL.D. Roma, Italy, who aided with the Italian translation ; to Mr. Henry Rand Hatfield, PH.D., University of California, who criticized the work; and to Mr. Page Lawrence, C.P.A., who wrote the introduction :-truly a veritable combination (trust) of formidable minds in restraint of duplication (competition) of this work, a combination of love and harmony, for without friends and without consideration for our neighbor there is neither peace nor accomplishment.

The book, therefore, is the result of a faithful compliance with the motto of the Boers of South Africa: "Eendracht maakt macht," which translated does not mean, as commonly stated, "In union there is strength," but rather that "United, harmonious, loving cooperation to the same lawful end tends toward power that brings just results."

J. B. Geijsbeek Molenaar.

Denver, August, 1914.

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Sixteen of the most influential books ont of a possible total of 50 works.
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Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportioni et Proportionalita.

Part 1, Section 9, Treatise 11,
Particularis de Computis et Scripturis.
Frater Lucas de Burgo Sancti Sepulchri, Ordinis Minorum et sacre theologie magister, in arte arithmetice et geometrie.

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La Scuola perfetta dei mercanti.
Fra. Paciolo di Borgo Santo Sepolcro.
Toscana 1504
Summa de Arithmetica
(see full title above, this being practically a duplicate edition of 1494, but contains less contractions and abbreviations.)

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Amsterdam 1604

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> B. F. Foster. $\begin{aligned} & \text { Library of Institute of Chartered Accountants } \\ & \text { in England and Wales (London). }\end{aligned}$

London 1852

Die Berechtigung der einfachen Buchhaltung gegenüber der doppelten. Ernst Ludwig Jäger.

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The History of Accounting and Accountants.
Richard Brown, Editor.

## HISTORICAL

Printing from blocks of wood in which the letters were carved, was known long before the Christian era, but this was cumbersome and slow and hence but few books were published in that manner. Printing from loose metal type which could be set up in the way known to us to-day did not begin to be a success until after A. D. 1462, when the German city of Maintz or Mentz (where the first wellknown printer, Gutenberg, and his students lived) was sacked by Adolph of Nassau, and those who were printers were scattered far and wide through other cities.

Even during the first part of the sixteenth century, one-fourth of all the books printed came from one city only, i. e., Venice in Italy. Therefore a book produced from loose type in 1494 in Venice, must have been among the very first printed, and its subject must have been at that time of such prime importance as to make it worthy of being among the first to be published. The oldest treatise which has come down to us either printed or written on the subject of bookkeeping, is included as a part of a $\checkmark$ rather large printed volume on arithmetic and geometry. This volume was published in November, 1494, in Venice, Italy. It has been used considerably by later writers on the subject of arithmetic and geometry, and is mentioned in numerous works of bibliographers, both ancient and modern. The title is: Summa de Arithmetica Geometria Proportioni e Proportionalita." Bookkeeping is treated in Part One, Section 9, Treatise 11, under the chapter title of "Particularis Computis et Scripturis," which translated would mean: "Particulars of Reckonings and Their Recording."

The exact name of the author cannot be established definitely from this work, as his full name does not appear on the title page nor anywhere else. The author calls himself in this book Frater Lucas de Burgo Sancti Sepulchri, which translated into English may be called Brother Lucas of the City of the Holy Sepulchre. The City of the Holy Sepulchre, or Sancti Sepulchri, is a city in the northern part of Italy near Venice. On page 67-2, line 5, of Frater Lucas' book "Summa de Arithmetica," he states that about A. D. 1470 he dedicated a certain book to his students named Bartolo, Francesco, and Paulo, the three sons of a prominent merchant of Venice named (Antonio de) Rompiasi. From other writings and other evidence, bibliographers have come to the conclusion through their researches that the real name of this "Frater Lucas' was Lucas Pacioli.

The copyright of the book published in 1494 expired in 1504, and about that time a reprint of the chapter on bookkeeping appeared in Toscana, under the title of "La Scuola perfetta dei Mercanti." A copy of this reprint was not in the possession of the writer, but it would appear that there the name of the author was given as Fra. Paciolo di Borgo Santo Sepolcro. In other writings he is known as Patiolus, which is supposed to be the Latin for Pacioli.

In 1509, shortly before he died, he wrote a book called "Divina Proportione,'" in which he gives a foreword and reproduces several letters he has written. In these he signs himself as Lucas Patiolus. This book was written in Latin. On page 33-b of this book, in section 6, treatise No. 1, chapter No. 1, the author refers to his book published in 1494 in the following words: "in opera nostra grande dicta summa de arithmetica etc. impressa in Venetia nel 1494 et al Magnanimo Duca d'Urbino dicata." We underscored the word "nostra," which means "our."

Lucas Pacioli, as we will call him hereafter, believing that to be his proper name, was born about 1445 in the little city of Sancti Sepulchri, in the Province of Arezzo, of Tuscany, west south-west of the City of Urbino. He was a great lecturer, mathematician, writer, scholar, teacher, and traveler, a well-known and famous man, who was the first to translate into Latin the works of Euclid. Successively he was professor of mathematics at Perugia, Rome, Naples, Pesa and Venice, and was chosen for the first occupant of a professor's chair founded by Louis Sforza. He was in Milan with Leonardo da Vinci at the Court of Louis the Moor until the invasion of the French. It is not improbable that Leonardo da Vinci helped Pacioli in the writing of this work as there are indications of two distinct styles of writing. He belonged to the Order of Friars Minor of St. Francis. It is apparent that he took the cloth late in life, for protection and standing needed in his many traveling tours, during the unrest then existing in Italy. He wrote his treatise on bookkeeping when he was about 50 years old, and died near the end of the year 1509, at the age of 65 .

It is but natural that bookkeeping should be always in its greatest perfection in those countries where commerce has reached its highest stage. It is well known that during the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Venice was a powerful republic, from which all European commerce radiated, until in 1498 the East Indian ocean route was discovered, from which time on the commercial power of Venice waned. It is safe to assume that the book here reproduced faithfully depicts the conditions existing at the time of its writing and the prevailing system of recording the transactions of commerce. All the world's commerce, practically speaking, was concentrated in this small territory, therefore its system of bookkeeping must have been the most perfect known in the world at that time. The existence of a well advanced system of bookkeeping in the centers of commerce must have caused considerable confusion and correspondence with the places where such a system did not exist, in order to equalize and settle accounts between the merchants residing in these various places.

It is therefore probable that a great need existed for taking advantage of the facilities which the new inventions in printing permitted, to present to the commercial world outside of these centers a systematic treatise of the most important part of commerce, namely, the recording of its transactions
and results. Pacioli does not claim that he invented double-entry bookkeeping, but on the other hand mentions in his book the existence of ancient customs and numerous methods named after the places where they were used. Thus he calls the method of bookkeeping he describes, the method of Venice, as distinguished from those in use in other cities, the names of which appear in the translation we have made of his book.

While Pacioli gives in his book on arithmetic and geometry copious illustrations, as will be seen from the sample page of that portion of the book herein reproduced, he did not give examples and illustrations of the day book, the journal and ledger, which he describes. His book therefore has never become as popular as those of later writers who give these examples. Pacioli, however, was very lengthy and careful in his minute and detailed description of the various methods employed. The reading of his book will be a revelation to those who have an idea that the present high state of development of American commerce should have produced methods of bookkeeping unknown at such an early period as when Pacioli wrote. They will find that there then existed the little safeguards which are not described or explained in present books of instruction on bookkeeping, but which we accountants are always wont to preach about to those bookkeepers who come under our observation, and which we do not pass by simply as mere suggestions but upon which we insist emphatically with a "You must do this." Pacioli especially describes these little things with great emphasis, and in a style cunning in the extreme, fully punctuated with adages to bring the truth home so no one could forget it. He, however, on the other hand, does not spend any time in explaining the modus operandi of bookkeeping, which we learn only by practice (as he puts it), as he doubtless appreciated that he was not writing his treatise to teach bookkeeping to those who did not know anything about it, but only describing the advantage of the particular method in use in Venice in order to convert merchants to a change from their system to the best system then known.

Writers who have followed after Pacioli have practically all given full illustrations of the journal and ledger, but have rather neglected to explain the "whys" and "wherefores" of the little and valuable details upon which Pacioli has laid so much stress, taking them as matters of fact rather than as fundamental principles. As we all know, it is the little things which throw the safeguards about a proper system of bookkeeping.

It is not the writer's aim to go into detail as to the history of bookkeeping. Any one desiring to study this subject in its entirety, is referred to the most remarkable records and researches of Jäger, Kheil, and Row Fogo as edited by Brown, the title of whose books are fully described in the bibliography hereto appended.

Jäger and Kheil were prominent German scholars, who must have devoted an enormous amount of time to their researches as to the origin and growth of bookkeeping. Jäger was somewhat hasty and inaccurate; Kheil is somewhat brief, and therefore difficult to understand by those who have not read other books on the subject. Both of these books are written in German.

Happily we Americans have the aid of the recent book written in Scotland by Brown and his associates. The treatise they present is exhaustive, brief, to the point, and exceedingly accurate, fully illustrated, and is of immense value to every student of the subject of accountancy.

The writer does not wish to duplicate the work of any of these three, but by the present volume he desires to emphasize the fact that Pacioli's work is the real foundation of all books published in Germany, Holland, France, and England within the first hundred years after it was written. We will do nothing more than describe the effect of Pacioli's book on Manzoni and Pietra which appeared in Italian, Gotlieb, Schweicker, and Goessens, which appeared in German, Ympyn and Stevin in Dutch, Ympyn in French, and Ympyn, Oldcastle, Mellis, and Dafforne in English, as these books undoubtedly have been the basis for subsequent works in these various languages, most of which are at present available for comparison and study. The titles of other contemporary books can be found in the bibliography of Mr. Brown's work, for he gives an exhaustive list of over 150 books written on this subject between Pacioli's time and the beginning of the nineteenth century. Of these, 50 were written prior to the publication of Dafforne's "The Merchants' Mirrour" in 1636, which is really the first popular English work. Most of these 50 were written in Italian, Dutch, or German, with the honors about evenly divided.

As we have said, Lucas Pacioli's book appeared in Venice in 1494, with a ten-year copyright. At the expiration of that period, or in 1504, the same printers published an exact duplicate of this book, under a different title. Twenty-one years after the last date, or in 1525, there appeared in Venice a very unsatisfactory and incomplete work on bookkeeping by Giovanni Antonio Tagliente, of which the historians do not say much.

Forty years after Pacioli's book of 1494, or in the year 1534, Domenico Manzoni published in Venice his book on bookkeeping, which proved very popular, as during a period of 40 years it went through six or seven editions, which may be termed a tremendous success, considering the conditions of those times.

Manzoni dedicated his book to Alouisius Vallaressus, a rich brother of a friend of his named Petrus. It seems apparent from his preface that he commenced the book years before it was published, when all three (the author, his friend, and the latter's rich brother) were going to school in Venice. In the title he mentions "the method of Venice," but he does not tell anywhere how or where he gained his knowledge and does not give Lucas Pacioli any mention or credit.

Manzoni wrote in dialect, or what is called "patois." He says in his preface that he is not a scholar and cannot use flowery language but only the speech of his mother, which he learned by word
of mouth. He states too that he is a poor man. In those days only the very rich and the clergy could attend schools. The poor were usually artisans, learning their trade from their parents.

Manzoni's book may be termed a revised reprint of Pacioli. Page after page is identical and word for word, and the remainder is merely shorn of the religious expressions, adages, and peculiar repetitions which Pacioli so freely indulged in. Much of value and many of the details given in Pacioli's book are here omitted.

This book is divided into two parts, one for the text and the other for examples of journal and ledger. While the text covers but 12 of the 36 chapters of Pacioli, the two parts combined may be said to reproduce about 18 chapters of Pacioli. At the beginning of the writer's translation of Pacioli's book herein, a comparative index is given, which illustrates just how much of Pacioli's book Manzoni copied and what he left out. The only new idea in his book as compared with that of Pacioli, is the consecutive numbering of the journal entries. In some respects, however, Manzoni is clearer than Pacioli, as for instance, he gives definite rules for the making of journal entries; tabulates six things or matters of information always contained in every journal entry; describes the form of journal better by mentioning five "standing" or "down'" lines; explains the use of more than one day book; and gives a chapter to the apparent transposition of the terms "A" (our "To") and "Per" (our "By") in the ledger from its customary use in the journal.

Manzoni gives full illustrations of the journal and ledger, with its entries, which Pacioli, for reasons stated, did not deem necessary. The addition of these illustrations of course has made the book more popular, and Manzoni, while a plagiarist in other respects, must be given the credit of having really been the first to do this. The writer regrets that Manzoni's book is not accessible to him for on that account only one reproduction can here be given, namely, the last page of the journal, which is taken from Brown's history of accounting.

In 1586, nearly 100 years after Pacioli wrote, we find that Don Angelo Pietra published a work on bookkeeping fully illustrated with numerous examples. The book was printed in Mantua by Franz Osanna. Pietra was a monk, born in Genoa, stationed at the Monastery of Monte Cassino, Neapel, Province of Caserta, near Sora. He was the auditor, storekeeper, and cellarer of that monastery. He belonged to the Order of St. Benedict, and dedicated his book to Lastancius Facius, the abbot of the Benedictine monastery at Mantua. Pietra's style is very clear and concise, and his book contains some 60 short but pithy chapters. As will be seen from the comparative index heretofore mentioned, and given farther on in this book, Pietra had for his guide the books of both Pacioli and Manzoni, for he covered matters which Pacioli did, and also the items which we have just seen Manzoni mentioned in his book but which we do not find in Pacioli. Especially is this true in the enumeration of the items which always must appear in a journal entry. Pietra uses Manzoni's six items in the same order, but adds thereto two others. He also gives the definite rules for making journal entries, mentions the transposition of "A" and "Per," the five standing lines in the journal, and enumerates several day books. He gives further some 30 additional items which neither Manzoni nor Pacioli mentions. Jäger does not speak very highly of Pietra, but it seems to the writer that Pietra was an ingenious man, fully as well educated as Pacioli, and a good deal more experienced in the necessities required of a bookkeeper. He recommends several innovations, prominent among which is double entry bookkeeping for those who are not in business for profit but are capitalists or associations not organized for the making of profits, which we might call eleemosynary corporations. For this purpose he describes three different ledgers, one for merchants, one for bankers, and one for capitalists and those similarly situated. He calls the ledger for the capitalist "economic ledger."

Unlike Pacioli and Manzoni, Pietra does not begin with an inventory, but with a proprietorship account. He is exceedingly careful in the taking of his inventory, and gives in his book a large folded insert containing a tabular inventory. He gives a tabulation of entries for the ledger which do not have to go through the journal (such as closing entries). He advocates the vouchering of disbursements. He minutely explains that expense accounts can show two balances, and that they can show a profit as well as a balance to be carried forward in the nature of an inventory. The detail of some 30 items which he mentions in his book and which neither Manzoni nor Pacioli describes, we give farther on, by the side of the reproduction of some of the pages of Pietra's book.

In 1632 there appeared in Bologna a work on bookkeeping written by Matteo Mainardi. This book is of a far later date than the ones heretofore mentioned, but it is somewhat remarkable in that it attempts to describe, besides the system for the merchants, one for the keeping of executor's and trustee's accounts. In many respects this book compares favorably with that of Pietra, and Mainardi undoubtedly had all the three books just described at his command. In the reproductions herein, we are giving only the title, the preface, and two pages of the journal, the last for the purpose of indicating the method then in use of showing journal entries with more than one debit or more than one credit, and to indicate further that bookkeeping made far greater progress in Holland than in Italy, as will be apparent from the discussion of Simon Stevin's book published in 1604.

We will now pass to the German authors. We have mentioned before that Venice and other places in the northern part of Italy were the centers of commerce from which the distribution of merchandise was made to the inland. The nearest commercial city of the inland known in those days was Nuremberg, and it is therefore but natural that we should find there the first work on bookkeeping published in the German language. The author was Johann Gotlieb, and the book was published in Nuremberg in 1531, three years before Manzoni, the second Italian writer, published his book. The author states frankly that he has translated his work from the "Welsh," meaning by this term "Italian." His book is considered a brief and very poor copy of Pacioli.

Gotlieb's book, however, is not the first that we know of in Germany. Henricus Grammateus, who called himself in German Heinrich Schreiber, lived for a long while in Vienna and there wrote in 1518 a book called "Rechenbüchlin, Künstlich, behend und gewiss auf alle, Kauffmanschafft gerichtet" containing mostly a text on arithmetic, but devoting some pages to the description of a very poor system of bookkeeping, which by a stretch of the imagination may be identified as possibly covering double-entry bookkeeping. This work was printed in Erfurt in 1523, and in Frankfurt in 1572

After Gotlieb's book we find one published in 1549 at Nuremberg entitled "Zwifach Buchhalten," by Wolfgang Schweicker. This work can not be called excellent, nor is it as exhaustive or as good as that of either Pacioli or Manzoni, but there is no doubt that he had both of these books at his command, and especially followed Manzoni. The three German books thus far mentioned were undoubtedly not good enough to have become standards, and they have exerted little influence on the methods of bookkeeping used since then in Germany.

The first writer who was able to leave an impression which is lasting to this day was Passchier Goessens, a Dutchman from Brussels. He wrote, in 1594, at Hamburg where he was then living, a book on bookkeeping. Goessens".states very plainly in his preface where he had learned the art and the title indicates that he followed the Italian system. He obtained his information from some of the earlier Dutch writings, which we will soon mention. German bookkeepers therefore, have benefited more by the knowledge which the Dutch imparted to them than by that which their own countrymen brought direct from Italy.

- Next in importance and period of time, we come to the influence of the Dutch writers on the German, French, and English subsequent authors on the subject of bookkeeping. The Dutch for centuries controlled the supremacy of the seas, as they were great ship-builders and navigators. They were excellent, careful and honest tradesmen, and their trade was sought far and wide. Yet the Italian cities, through their ancient relation with the eastern nations, had become the world's leaders in commerce and the Dutch people were therefore forced to trade with these Italian republics until the discovery in 1498 of an all-ocean route to the eastern countries. Thereafter the center of commerce was shifted from Venice and its surrounding republics to Holland. As the Dutch were such travelers on water, they naturally sent their young men by water to the trade centers, for education and training, and in this way the knowledge of commerce also shifted from Venice to the Dutch countries.

Jan Ympyn Christoffels was one of the Dutch merchants who visited Venice and the northern part of Italy and he remained there for twelve years. He returned evidently wise in the knowledge of the keeping of books according to the Italian manner and wrote a book on that subject. He did not, however, live to see his book published, but his widow Anna Swinters published his manuscripts in the Dutch and French languages during the year 1543. Of the Dutch edition there seems to be but one copy in existence, which is in the City Library at Antwerp. The French work, however, can be purchased. The discovery by Hugo Balg of an English copy of this book in a Russian library was reported by the German scholar Kheil, although it was so mutilated that the name of the author does not remain, and the exact date of its publication is not known. However, from the similarity of the contents Kheil established the authorship of this book. The widow of Jan Ympyn Christoffels (better known as Jan Ympyn), says very distinctly in the preface of the Dutch book that it was written by her husband and that she merely published it, which statement would indicate that the English book was written prior to 1543. The illustrations in the book bear date of 1536 and 1537.

Ympyn claims to have obtained his knowledge in Italy, and says he used Italian books for the foundation of his work. He gives credit, however, indirectly to a person who has never been known as an author on bookkeeping, and historians rather indicate that this person was mercly an excellent bookkeeper from whom he gained considerable knowledge. He mentions, however, very distinctly the book of Lucas Pacioli, although he calls him Brother Lucas de Bargo. We find Lucas Pacioli's name thus quoted in a large number of books subsequently published, from which we may infer that Ympyn's work was well known and used by a good many writers, because from no other source could they have obtained this faulty version of Pacioli's name.

The next important writer in the Dutch language was Simon Stevin, who wrote in Latin a book on mathematics, which was published in Leijden in 1608, in which he includes several chapters on bookkeeping. These were a reproduction of a book published in the Dutch language on "bookkeeping for merchants and for princely governments,'" which appeared in Amsterdam in 1604, and was rewritten in The Hague in 1607 in the form of a letter addressed to Maximiliaen de Bethune, Duke of Seulley. This Duke was superintendent of finance of France, and had numerous other imposing titles. He had been very successful in rehabilitating the finances of France, and Stevin, knowing him through Prince Maurits of Orange, was very anxious to acquaint him with the system which he had installed and which had proven so successful. This manuscript of 1607 was published in book form by Stevin's son Hendrick "in the second year of the Dutch Peace" of Munster (1648), which ended the eighty year war with Spain ; this would make the date of publication 1650. Hendrick Stevin dedicated the book to the sister of the deceased Prince Maurits, expressing the hope that she may continue with the system of municipal bookkeeping which had made her brother's stewardship of the affairs of government so successful. Stevin's book becomes very important to Americans, because he materially influenced the views of his friend Richard Dafforne, who through his book "The Merchants' Mirrour,' published in 1636, became practically the English guide and pioneer writer of texts on bookkeeping.

Simon Stevin, who was born in Bruges near Antwerp in 1548, and died in The Hague in 1620, was a traveler, author, mathematician, engineer, and inventor, a highly educated man who thought bookkeeping important enough to induce Prince Maurits of Orange, the then governor of the Dutch countries, to
install double-entry bookkeeping throughout his territory, thus practically putting municipal accounting on the double-entry system, the very thing we are today after more than three hundred years sighing for. Stevin wrote part of the text of his book in the form of a dialogue, consisting of questions and answers, which he says actually occurred in the arguments he had while teaching Prince Maurits the art of bookkeeping.

Simon Stevin served his apprenticeship in a mercantile office in Antwerp, where he learned bookkeeping. After that he held important public offices, such as quarter-master-general, surveyor of taxes of Bruges and, under Prince Maurits was minister of finances and chief inspector of public works. There he displayed such inventive ingenuity in engineering that he may be said to have been the founder of modern engineering. His discoveries were in dynamics and lydrostatics, and among his many other inventions may be mentioned an important improvement to the canal locks. He was the first to bring into practical use decimal fractions. His works on engineering and fortifications have remained standards until the last decade or two.

Stevin was a prolific writer on many varied subjects. Among other things, he wrote about the art of war on land as well as on sea, about the construction of buildings, residences, and fortifications, the improvement of cities and agricultural lands, about water mills, canals, the art of singing, the art of oratory, rhetoric, mathematics, geometry, and about the weighing of metals and alloys through the difference in weight above water and under water.

The writer would consider Stevin to be one of the first men of whom we have a record as performing duties equal to those of a modern accountant. We have seen that his regular work was that of superintendent of finance (secretary of the treasury) and chief engineer of fortifications and public buildings of Holland, besides being tutor and adviser to Prince Maurits of Orange. In addition to all of this, he was continually called in to settle disputes between partners, audited numerous mercantile books and drew therefrom financial statements, made up partnership books to obtain their settlements, installed systems in all departments of government, in mercantile houses, royal households, municipal ities, for construction of specific fortifications and public buildings, traveled to England, France, Germany, Italy, Denmark and Belgium, in order to appear before courts to give testimony in the settlement of financial affairs, and performed numerous other duties of an accountant, which we may infer from his remarks throughout his book.

Jäger, Kheil, and Row Fogo through Brown ridicule to a considerable extent the old writers on bookkeeping, instead of describing the worthy things about them and marveling at their accuracy and ingenuity. Especially do they harangue about Stevin's Latin, but overlook entirely the many worthy suggestions from Stevin's inventive genius.

In Brown's book on the history of accounting Stevin's treatise on mercantile bookkeeping is highly spoken of but Stevin is ridiculed for his endeavor to put municipal accounting on the double-entry system. We feel this to be an injustice to Stevin, for the reason that while his descriptions on municipal accounting may at first blush appear to be faulty, we learn from the descriptions and illustrations he gives of mercantile bookkeeping that he was exceedingly brief but accurate, and that therefore in the text we should take much for granted.

Stevin did not fully illustrate municipal accounting, for three reasons: first of all the officials who were to use the system he installed received regular orders with forms attached from headquarters; therefore his book was not a full exposition of all these orders with their forms, but was merely a review of the entire system. Secondly, (as he states) he was writing an argument in favor of his system to those officials who were forced to use it and might hesitate to support it loyally. This he did in an authoritative manner, by quoting continually the friendly and close association he had with the Prince, which of course he could not make use of in his official orders. Thus he put power and dignity behind his orders. Thirdly, he fully illustrated mercantile accounting and insisted on the employment only of clerks who were well versed in the art of bookkeeping according to the Italian method. After illustrating mercantile accounting thoroughly, he then simply describes the difference between the two systems, which (he reiterates) is his only aim. He gives eight pages of journal and forty pages of ledger on municipal accounting, although they contain only opening and not closing entries. The latter he explains fully in his text by stating deviations from the system used by merchants.

Yet apparently Stevin's treatise on municipal accounting is judged only by the absence of illustrations, but no credit is given him for the ingenious devices he mentions and which we now call internal checks. Brown evidently had not read much of the text, nor his son's subsequent book and notes, which as we have seen heretofore were published in 1650, at which time his son states that while some defects were found in the previous treatise, the system had survived until that day and had been improved upon, he describing such improvements in addition to reproducing his father's works.

Stevin was very ingenious in prescribing methods for what we now are wont to call "internal checks." For instance, in order to check the pay roll of the soldiers and other public officials, he demanded that the pay roll be sent direct to the auditors (and he calls them auditeurs, the French for auditors), and then insisted that the cook at the mess-house where all the soldiers and officials were being fed, should report independently to the auditors the number of meals served.

Another internal check which he suggested in order to stop the making of errors and the stealing in the collection of taxes and rents, was to make the sub-treasurer's report to the general treasurer each month of not only the cash receipts and disbursements but the persons remaining delinquent in their payments. After the reported delinquents remained so for three months, he suggested the sending of the sheriff by the general treasurer (not the sub-treasurers) to sell the property of the delinquent tax-payer
or to collect from him a bond. He explains that thus you can force the tax-payer to demand a receipt from the sub-treasurer when paying, and display it to the sheriff, and thus get cvidence against the subtreasurer of stealing.

Towards the end of this book we are reproducing Stevin's journal and ledger, and appended thereto we have given some further remarks describing the superiorities of Stevin's work, which will prove interesting reading. Stevin undoubtedly followed Ympyn, who in turn as we have seen, obtained his knowledge from Pacioli.

Up to this date then, we have, besides general mercantile books, records of specific systems of bookkeeping for merchants, branch stores, traveling salesmen, partnerships, household accounts, bankers, capitalists, monasteries, executors, and municipalities, as we will see from the specialties enumerated by these writers.

We next will make a survey of how the knowledge of bookkeeping came to England, whence it probably came to America.

We find that a school teacher by the name of John Mellis wrote in London in 1588 a book on bookkeeping, which in his preface he states to be a reprint of a book by Hugh Oldcastle, which Mellis says appeared in London in 1543 under the title of "A profitable treatyce called the Instrurnent or Boke to learne to knowe the good order of the kepying of the famouse reconynge called in Latyn Dare and Habere and in Englyshe Debitor and Creditor." No copy exists as far as is known of this book of Oldcastle, and it is not therefore an absolute certainty that it ever existed. It might have been a manuscript only, and again, the date may not be reliable. It may also be that the book was written by some one else, and given to John Mellis by Hugh Oldcastle. It may therefore have been Jan Ympyn's book in English, especially as the dates are so close together. However this may be, Mellis's book is nothing more than a translation of Pacioli's book, and Mellis states that he had traveled and studied in the Dutch country. Brown in his history of accounting openly says that every English writer on accounting in the early days gained his knowledge from the Dutch, because Holland was the training school for English merchants, and he gives numerous instances to support his statement.

Any one doubting that Mellis's book is a translation of Pacioli, should compare Mellis's description of the checking of the ledger, as quoted by Brown, with our translation of this same subject in Pacioli's book. That Mellis is undoubtedly a copy of Pacioli, appears from an error he made in referring in one of his chapters to a chapter previously mentioned, naming it chapter 15, the same as Pacioli stated in his chapter 16 , but as Mellis left out chapter 5 of Pacioli, containing a short introduction, and also chapter 7 about the certification of books by notaries, Mellis's chapter 14 is the same as Pacioli's 16 , and Mellis's chapter 13 is the same as Pacioli's 15 ; yet Mellis makes reference to chapter 15 the same as Pacioli, instead of using chapter 13. The discovery of this error is mentioned in Brown's history of accounting.

Next in importance, and the last book we will mention in our survey, is "The Merchants' Mirrour," by Richard Dafforne. Dafforne says that in Germany, Italy and Holland, there had existed a great many able writers on bookkeeping, and he gives a large list of authors. He attributes the existence of these books to the demand, stating that there would not be a supply unless there was a demand. He very much deplores the fact that such a demand did not exist in England, nevertheless lie contributes his book, which is undoubtedly a very able treatise. He even speaks of his acquaintance with Simon Stevin, and he writes his book on the same order as Stevin, namely, in dialogue style, or questions and answers. Dafforne's book was published in London for the first time in 1636, and appeared afterwards in 1651, 1660, and 1684. Later English writers have followed Dafforne and Mellis. Therefore, directly and indirectly, Pacioli through the Dutch, has laid the foundation of our present accounting literature and our present knowledge of bookkeeping.

We are reproducing most of the text of Dafforne's book and a few pages from the daybook, journal and ledger. Anyone doubting that Dafforne followed Simon Stevin and other Dutch writers on bookkeeping will be convinced by reading his text. Numerous quotations are made from these and other Dutch authors throughout the text and even in the title page. In one place an abstract from the bible is rendered in the Dutch language. Further Dafforne states that he received his knowledge and ideas in Holland and that part of the illustrations and text was written in Holland. The mentioning of so many Dutch customs and Dutch names in the ledger accounts shows that he himself succumbed to what he feared: "They being then at Rome, will do as there is done."

While we have described thus far the oldest text books in existence on the subject of bookkeeping, the records of books of account predate these considerably, and for further information on this subject we can do no better than refer you to Brown's history of accounting, where not only detail is given but where also convincing illustrations are reproduced. However, the purpose of presenting to the reader a correct idea of what was done in this line, we might state that the books of the steward of the city of Genoa in 1340 were kept on the double-entry principle. The oldest mercantile ledger at Venice is dated 1460 , and is that of the firm of Donado Soranzo \& Brothers. This ledger has a profit \& loss and a capital account. Specimens of this ledger are reproduced in Brown's history of accounting on pages 99 to 106, and will greatly help the reader to understand Pacioli's instructions, in respect to the year, the Roman figures in the money column, and the Arabic figures for the smallest coin or Picioli, etc.

## DISCURSION IN THEORY

We find in the translations of the old treatises on bookkeeping the terms debit, credit, inventory, journal, cash, capital, balance, per (modern by), a (modern to), assets, liabilities, etc., and a definition of each of these with their use in the olden times should prove of interest.

Our word debit is put in Italian as "debito", which comes from the old Latin debita and debeo, which in business and from the standpoint of the proprietor means "owe" or "he owes to the proprietor," that which was loaned or given him by the proprietor. (The old authors do not use it in ledger accounts.)

Our word credit is put in Italian as "credito," coming from the old Latin word "credo," which means "trust or believe," as in business our creditors were "believers" in the integrity of the proprietor, and therefore loaned or gave him something. Therefore, from the proprietor's point of view, the word should be translated as the creditor "is owed by the proprietor," that which was loaned or given to the proprietor. (The old authors do not use it in ledger accounts.)

Inventory in Italian, "inventario," comes from the Latin "invenio," which means to find out or discover.

Journal in Italian "giornal" comes from the Latin "diurnalis" which means daily happenings or diurnal.

Ledger comes from the Dutch "Legger" meaning "to lie down" and was originated probably from the necessity that the ledger, which was called the big book, became so large and cumbersome that it remained, or was lying, always in one place.

Cash in Italian, "cassa," comes from case or box, which is the same as the Italian borscia from the Latin bursa or purse.

Capital, which is mentioned in Italian as "Cavidale," comes from the old Latin "capitalis," which means "chief" or "head," and also from the Latin "capitali," which means property. Thus capital would mean "the property of the chief," i. e., proprietorship.

As to the word "balance," the following will indicate its meaning. A clear distinction is made by the old writers between (1) the difference in an account between the debit amounts and the credit amounts, (2) the reason for entering this difference in the account, and (3) the status of the account after equalizing both sides by the making of an entry and closing the account. We term all three balances and balancing, while two are distinctly opposite. In Italian they call the difference or the remainder, "resto," and say they have entered this remainder in order to close (saldo), and then they state that the account is in balance (bilancio).

As to the terms "By" and "To,' Manzoni says, as does Pacioli, that in the journal entries the word "Per" denotes the debtor and always precedes it, and that "A" denotes the creditor.

Manzoni then goes on to point out that the prevailing system (which Pacioli describes) in his time was to use "Per" only (and not "A") as far as it relates to the ledger. He calls it a misuse which experts do not condone, and in his examples of ledger entries he uses in the debit of the debtor's account "A" because the name following it must of necessity be the name of the creditor and, as "A" denotes the creditor, so it must here precede the name of the creditor, as well as in the journal, in spite of the fact that it is written on the debit side of the ledger. Likewisc he puts on the credit side "Per" in front of the name of the debtor. Stevin, as explained, follows Pacioli.

Until the very recent present day we used in the ledger "To" on the debit side as a prefix to the name of the creditor and "By" on the credit side as a prefix to the name of the debtor.

It is difficult to say whether we can translate the Italian "Per" into our "By" and the Italian " $A$ " into our "To," as these two expressions or words can be translated in many different ways according to the noun or verb following or preceding it, together with the consideration of the tense and case used.

If, however, we take a literal translation of the Italian ledger heading used for our debit, or "dee dare," we come to "shall give." Putting this into a sentence read from a ledger we have as at the present time, "John Doe debit to Richard Roe" and in the old Italian, "John Doe dee dare (shall give) A (To) Richard Roe," and as to the credit, we have in our present day "Richard Roe credit by John Doe," and in the old Italian, "Richard Doe dee havere (shall have or receive) Per (by the hand of) John Doe.'

Our version, therefore, is that today we follow Manzoni rather than Pacioli and Stevin in this respect.

As to the journal, the old necessity for being particular in designating and separating the debtor from the creditor by Per and $A$ and the much commented upon little diagonal lines (//), has been obviated through the use of two columns in the journal-one for the debit amount, the other for the credit amount-and by the use of two lines of writing and by careful indentation. Thus, while we do not use the old expressions (Per and A) in the journal, we are more careful and systematic in separating debits from credits than the old authors were.

It would be interesting to learn when and where and under what circumstances and conditions the double column in the journal originated. From the fact that a trial balance, with total debits and total credits instead of differences between debits and credits, is called a French trial balance, we might infer
that that system originated in France because a French trial balance is based upon the system that all entries are journalized and the total debits and the total credits of the journal are added to the total debits and credits of the previous trial balance in order to arrive at the totals which the present trial balance should show. Such a trial balance makes an absolute necessity for the having of two columns in the journal.

Stevin explains debit and credit as follows:
"Genomen dat ymant met naem Pieter, my schuldich vvesende, doet dacr op betaling van 100 L : Enick 't gelt in een casse leggende, al of ict heur te bevvaren gave, segh dat die casse my 't selve gelt schuldich is, vvaer deur ick haer al oft een menseh vvaer, debiteur make, en Pieter crediteur, om dat hy syn schult vermindert, stellende int Iornael 't begin der partie aldus, 'Casse debet per Pieter'."

The above translated would be about as follows:
"Suppose that some one by the name of Peter owed me some money, on account of which he paid me £100, and I put the money in a cash drawer just as if I give it the money for safe keeping. I then say that that cash drawer owes me that money, for which reason (just as if it were a luman being) I made it a debtor and Peter of course becomes a creditor because he reduces lis debit to me. This I put in the Journal thus: 'Cash Debit Per Peter'."

From the above translation of the previous Dutch quotation it would seem that the journal entry shown is rather a hasty conclusion. The entry, in order to follow his explanations, should have been a double entry somewhat as follows: Cash Debit to Myself-Proprietor Credit-for the money I gave the cash drawer for safe keeping. To be followed by : Myself Debit to Peter Credit-he gave me money which I may have to return to him if he does not owe it to me.

As most of the entries, if made in this form would have both a debit and a credit to the proprietor for the same amount, these are simply omitted.

If we eliminate on both sides, according to algebraic formulae, the word "myself," we then have abbreviated the two entries to a real algebraic term, namely, "Cash Debit to Peter." Thus we have condensed two entries of thought to one entry written down, very much the same as in algebra $\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{b}$; $b=c ;$ hence $a=c$. In many of the old Dutch books Stevin's idea of a twofold double entry is mentioned, and is brought down to the present day, which accounts for the existence of a clear idea on this principle in Holland and in modern Dutch books on bookkeeping (see N. Brenkman, 1880, Theory of Double-Entry Bookkeeping).

It must be admitted that if we today would abolish the use of the words debit and credit in the ledger and substitute therefor the ancient terms of "shall give" and "shall have". or "shall receive," the personification of accounts in the proper way would not be difficult and, with it, bookkeeping would become more intelligent to the proprietor, the layman, and the student.

Elsewhere we have seen that Stevin insists upon testing when a journal entry in debit and credit must be made by asking the question, "When does proprietorship begin" or "When does proprietorship end," from which it is apparent that proprietorship must enter in the consideration of each entry and, if it is not there, it is simply eliminated by the rules of algebra. This, of course, would at once lead to the personification of the capital and profit or loss accounts into "the proprietor" as differentiated from "the business," and would then immediately show the fallacy of the statement that capital and surplus are liabilities, as well as of the absurd theory that assets must equal liabilities.

The following translation of the dialogue between Simon Stevin and the Prince Maurits of Orange on this subject fully illustrates that Stevin then understood his subject far better than do some modern text writers and theorists, and it makes certain recent so-called "discoveries" appear mere mental vagaries, as far as the credit for discovery is concerned. It merely illustrates that they are today as deep thinkers as Stevin was 300 years ago.
The Prince. I must ask another question. The entries stand in my ledger as debits and credits. Which of these two stand to my advantage and which to my disadvantage?
Stevin. Debits in the ledger are your advantage, for the more Peter owes you the more your capital is, and likewise much pepper in the warehouse, which stands as a debit, will make much money in the cash drawer. However, credits are the reverse.
The Prince. Are there no exceptions to this?
Stevin. I cannot recall any.
The Prince. Yet capital as a debit does not seem to me as an advantage, and capital as a credit being a disadvantage to me appears entirely wrong.
Stevin. I forgot that. You are right. I meant to say that capital is an exception.
The Prince. Further, expense is a debit and it, together with the debit in the profit and loss, are both disadvantages.
Stevin. Because these two are a part of the capital account they are included in the exception.
The Prince. The credits in the cloves account in the ledger are in excess of the debits by $574-4-7$. This is an advantage to me because it represents a profit, yet it is in the credit.
Stevin. The reply to this would be that if the account were closed (which you can do when you please, but usually at the end of the year), the excess in the credits would be transferred to the profit and loss account and your question would not arise.
The Prince. Yet it remains that with accounts like the cloves account, where they show a profit or a loss, it is not so frequently true that at all times debit is an advantage and credit a disadvantage.

Stevin. That appears to be true and in that respect it is somewhat similar to your exception, but it shows all the more positively that in all accounts of capital, or those pertaining to capital, debit is always a disadvantage and credit an advantage.
The Prince. Why has capital more exceptions than all the others? Stevin.

Because capital debit means as much as though the proprietor said, "I am debit to all the other accounts." It follows that the more a proprietor is debtor in this manner the more it is to his disadvantage, and the more he is creditor the more it is to his advantage, for which reason capital must be the reverse of other accounts, and it is not therefore really an exception.
The Prince. If capital stands for the name of the proprietor, why is the proprietor's name not used instead of the word capital inasmuch as through the use of that word so many things become so difficult to understand?
Stevin. Merchants often form partnerships with many who together put in one principal sum of money. For this reason we need one designation indicating them all at once as proprietors, and for this the word capital is used with good reasons.
Furthermore, at that time the words assets and liabilities were not known in bookkeeping. Happy days they must have been. These terms ought not to be known or used now. What we now term liabilities, and some of which some of us are almost tempted to call "near liabilities" very much the same as we define "near silk," never are and never will be liabilities, for at the time the financial statement is prepared these amounts are not supposed to be due, hence the proprietor cannot possibly be liable for them at that time. At most he is "trusted" for them by his creditors, as the old authors expressed it correctly. Neither are assets at any time, in a going, solvent business, real assets. The words assets comes from "assez" which means "enough." The question of whether the proprietor has enough to cover his liabilities does not come up until his ability to meet his obligations is questioned or until he is called upon to render a statement to the court wherein he is brought for this purpose to answer the question whether he has enough (assez-assets) to cover that for which he is liable (liabilities) or past due credits or trustings by the creditors. Those who doubt this should study from the reported court cases the difference between mercantile insolvency and legal insolvency.

In analyzing a financial statement I believe these assets and liabilities may be interpreted to mean something like this: The proprietor, in order to be permitted to continue to do business on credit, makes here a showing to those interested by which he agrees that his books show that the personifications of cash, real property, personal property, merchandise, as well as the persons owing him, are obligated to him and "shall give" him the amounts stated on the left hand side of the statement or the amounts appearing to the debit of these accounts in the ledger and to the credit of his own account, and that thereby the proprietor will be able to meet whatever obligations he contracts with those with whom he has dealings. He further states in this report that persons interested should take notice that the books show that the following persons "shall have" or "shall receive" from him the items when they become due and payable and standing on the right hand side of the statement, or the amounts appearing to the credit of these accounts in the ledger and to the debit of his own account. That these items are to be deducted from the items of cash, real property, personal property, etc., before those interested in the statement can judge as to whether they shall trust (credito-credit) him further. Thus it becomes at once apparent that capital, together with surplus and losses and gains, represent the ownership of the things owned less those owed, leaving a net ownership, and net ownership can never be a liability (i. e., a thing to be liable for). If surplus ever can be a liability then a minus-surplus or a deficit must of necessity become an asset, which is an absurdity.

The statement of affairs described by Stevin and elsewhere reproduced, may be considered to be merely a statement of the closing entries as they would be made in the respective individual ledger accounts in order to make both the debits and the credits even and equal. For whatever each debit account shows more in the debit than in the credit, as Stevin explained, it is given by the owner to that account for safe keeping as if it were a person-hence this person or this account owes the proprietor; therefore, the proprietor trusts these personified accounts and becomes the creditor. With the credit accounts it is the reverse; hence Stevin's statement of affairs is the capital account itemized with a preponderance of credits to represent net capital. The English follow this method of rendering a financial statement to this day. Why Americans reverse the process is difficult to perceive.

From the foregoing it will further be seen that thus with the aid of ancient terms we can read intelligently and explain the abbreviated forms used in bookkeeping so that it becomes at once apparent why accounts like the cash account, which to the uninitiated looks like proprietorship, can be shown on the debit side of the ledger and why capital account, which always represents ownership, appears on the credit side. This at first thought may seem contradictory, but the reason for this apparent inconsistency lies in the elimination (through bookkeeping) of equal terms (as per rules of algebra) brought about by the theoretical making of double entries (two entries, each with a common debit and credit) and thus abbreviating it beyond the interpretation of ordinary language. Thus we may go on and with equal ease prove, as the German scholar Jäger has done, that double-entry bookkeeping is much older than single-entry bookkeeping, the latter being a still further shortening of methods of classification by the use of the terms debit and credit. Stevin very clearly suggests this in his explanation of the rules of partnership.

It is to be regretted that in the transfer of the expositions of the theory from the Dutch language (as so plainly exemplified by the scholar Simon Stevin) to the English (by the flowery schoolmaster Richard Dafforne) should have been so badly done that all records of the scientific part of the art and theory have been so completely obscured as to suggest even in the present day an argument on theories so well known in those olden days.

## LUCAS PACIOLI REPRODUCED

The following eight pages, from 18 to 26 , and the succeeding 32 left-hand pages, numbers 28 to 80 , represent photographic reproductions of the oldest extant book on double-entry bookkeeping, published in Venice, Italy, in 1494. The reproductious are of the same size as the original, and fully illustrate the make-up of the book, which is one of the oldest books ever printed from loose metal type in Roman letters, as explained at the opening of the historical chapter. The ink used was vegetable dye ink, and is today as black and as fresh as India ink, after 420 years of use and exposure. It is printed on hand-made rag paper, unsized, which after so many years of exposure to air and light is still so far superior to the very best modern paper that a comparison caunot be made.

On page 18 appears the title of this book, "Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportioni et Proportionalita," (Review on Arithmetic, Geometry, and Proportions). Below the title is a brief synopsis of the contents of the book. Part 1, Section 9, Treatise 11 of this ancient book treats of double-entry bookkeeping and begins on page 199-a of the original, or page 32 of this volume, under the title of "Particularis de computis et Scripturis" (Particulars of Reckonings and Their Recording). This can be found in the seventh line of page 32. The picture directly under the title, on page 32, is said by some to be that of the author of this book, but there is nothing in this or any other book which substantiates this assertion.

Page 19, which immediately follows the title page of the original, contains a dedicatory letter by the author, whose name appears on the second line. The lower half of this page is occupied on the right by an epigram of praise to Pacioli by a friend of his and on the left by an epigram by the anthor to the reader.

The first of the four last lines of this page contain, a list of the letters to be used by the printer, merely as a guide for those who are not familiar with this style of printed letters. Thereafter, on the last line, the year (1494), then the date (November 20th), and then the place (Venetia or Venice), all of these pertaining to the record of publication.

Page 20 is another dedicatory letter to the Duke of Urbino. The author's name appears here in the third line.

On page 22 , in the third line of the center paragraph, the author's name is given again, this time in the genetive case, hence Fratris Luce instead of Frater Lucas.

Pages 24 and 25 are reproduced in order to show the marginal notes there given, indicating the abbreviations used in the book, and their interpretation. Page 25 is also given for the reference the author makes in line 7 to three of his pupils, Bartolo, Francesco, and Paulo, the three sons of a prominent merchant of Venice named (Antonio de) Rompiasi. The dash over the " 0 " in the original indicates that an " $m$ " follows the " o ."

Page 23 is given to reproduce the type of numerous marginal illustrations the author gives on nearly every page of his chapters on geometry and arithmetic, considering the many illustrations here used it seems very strange that he should not have given some in his chapter on bookkeeping.

Page 26 is given to show that our modern so-called "efficiency engineers" have nothing the best of this monk of over 400 years ago, as to "organization charts." This chart illustrates the intricacies of proportions.

Pages 28 and 30 contain the index of the chapter on double-entry bookkeeping. No translation is given of these pages, because they are merely repetitions of the headings of each chapter, and therefore their translation appears at those places. In their stead, a comparative index is given of four of the earliest writers on bookkeeping, in order to illustrate how closely they have followed each other.

On pages 32 to 80 (left-hand only) are the reproductions of the original chapter on double-entry bookkeeping. Opposite each reproduction is given the translation in modern English subject to the qualifications mentioned in the preface.

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## WHAT WAS PACIOLI'S REAL NAME?

In the historical chapter, we have stated that the name of the author of the first book on bookkeeping was not definitely known. This is quite apparent from the different versions of the spelling of the name, which we find in the various books, and it becomes rather amusing to read how the various authors mentioning this name take delight in stating that the other fellow is wrong and they are right. Yet no two of them apparently give it alike.

Brown in his history of accounting especially ridicules Ympyn's version, and with it all Brown himself spells it Paciolo, with an " 0 " at the end, whereas all the authorities he quotes spell it with an " i " at the end, and he gives no explanation as to why he prefers the " 0 ". Below we give a tabulation of the various spellings of these names by the various authors, each one being preceded by the authority from which we have taken the name. We have adhered to the spelling of Lucas Pacioli throughout, because we believe that to be the proper spelling, from the two best researchers who have written about him, namely, the two Germans Jäger and Kheil, and further, because we believe that the "li" in the old Italian was Latinized into "lus," and the " c " " is the old Italian for the Latin " t " in most all cases where the Latin " $t$ " is preceded and followed by a vowel. Furthermore, we have the author's own version of his own name, as we have seen elsewhere, in the only book that is published with his name in full, namely: "Divina Proportione," which was written in Latin and where he gives the Latin of his own name. While "Luca" is the Italian for the Latin "Lucas," we follow the author's own spelling in his Italian as well as Latin books, namely "Lucas":

## AUTHORITY.

Summa de Arithmetica (author's original)

## SPELLING OF NAME.

Frater Lucas de Burgo Sancti Sepulchri
(The above name appears first on the second line of page 19 of this book, which is the second page of the original; also on the third line, page 20 of this book, which is page 3 of the original; and in the third line of the second paragraph, page 22 of this book, being page 4 of the original-here, however, it is given in the genitive, hence Fratris Luce instead of Frater Lucas).

La Scuola perfetta dei Mercanti (second edition of Summa de Arithmetica by same printers)
Divina Proportione
(author's original)
Contemporary writers
Jan Ympyn Christoffels
(in his French book)
Guido Brandaglia
Ernst Ludwig Jäger
Carl Peter Kheil
Beckmann's History
Anderson's History
Clitofonte Bellini
(Trattato Elementare Teorico-Pratico di Ragionesia Generale)
V. Vianello
(Luca Paciolo nella Storia della Ragionesia)
Pawell Ciompa
(Grundrisse einer Oekonometrie)
L. Gomberg
(Grundriss der Verrechnungswissenschaft)
V. Gitti
(De Computio-modern)
Moritz Cantor
(Geschichte der Mathematik)
Sigismund Günther
(Geschichte der Mathematik)
Catholic Encyclopedia
Richard Brown
John B. Geijsbeek

Fra Paciolo di Borgo Santo Sepolcro
Lucas Patiolus (the Latin of the Italian Pacioli)

## Lucas Pacciolus

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Lucas Paccioli
Fra Luca Pacioli di Borgo Sansepolcro
Lucas von Borgo
Lucas von Borgo
Luca Paciolo

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 zariubmectic: 7 ©
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 ftuduinnus exactam in buiufeenodi facuttatibus płarim tradere quemadmodĩe ex ozdinatifima etus ferielsand officulter intuerl licer. TIerum quat tempoibus noftris verbapzopzia matbefeos ob rarı tarem bonozum preceprozum apud latinos ferme interiere: cupiensego vrai effe biis qui veftre oitiöi parent (nonignarus ftilo elegantiozi.Eloquio Eiceroniano ie falientem eloqueutie vndajadíri opoz ere) quid $\varphi$ vnufqufiqz non bec caperct:fitarine perfapta effent:potius vernaculo fermone defori primus. Lietteraturc itraqs peritis pariter.Etimperitis bec commodume et iocunditacem afferent:fíint cis fe cercruerint vacent quabunibet facultatbus et artibus:ob per tractata que cõmunia vniculqz videntur z optime applicaripoffe. Ex pzimo quis non סico doctus:fed multo minus. . ${ }^{\boldsymbol{T}}$ mediortiter eruditue eft:qui non perfpiauc videat quantum bereant quantumq 9 neceffaria fint. aitrologie cuius pzincipes bactempeftate vigent aunnculus tuns pzinceps Dtauianus: vna cum सeurendifimo fos fimpzouй Epifcopo paulo mindeburgenfiquos in ömnibusfamper admiroz z veneroz: quozumq;


Iro al.q.fia falinea.q lt.catetto bel triangolo.q b d.nclquale menato lalinea. (r. equediftart) tealis k.fưra.fr.equale a la linca.ik.perclseequedittante cla linea.fi.ala linea.k c.b k.e fia.r
 marramo.br.j.e perdxe cglieccofib r.al.r.f.cofi.fi.akig. ©nde multiplicando.r f.per.fi.e oiuideudo per.br.viennè.s.per lo catetto.q i. Sude tutta.q f.e. $20 . d x e$ lalteça de la pira, mide.qabcd.

$E$ innuna fpera fi pigha va ponto oralquale. 4.rette linec fi merino infra: 1020 igualie vadino ala fuperficie oela fpcra e quelle lince nō fièno invna fuperficie pianaquel pontofia ficentro oe la fperg. alerbi gratia fía la fpera, a be e in ịlla fia il ponto.c. balquale fiēno menare. 4 lince infralozo iguali.s b.çg.s d.çe.e nō fiennoli ponti.b.g:doe.'nuna fuperfide piaria pico il ponto.ç.elfere centro dela pitta'fperae quefto euidentemente appare e po nōna bilogno de oimonltratione.


Clando fira mienato oal ponfo oel capo ooginf piramide colonnale al cêtro ôla bafa fua perpenduculare fopza la lua bafa:alozale lince rette cle fonno menate oal ponto oel capo fuo al cercioio contenente la fuperficie ocla fua bafa fontro i fra lozo iguall. Ela multiplicatóe ónna di quelle linee clse formo menate dal ca' polozo al cerdslocontenente lafuabafa:ne la mita od cerdsio contentrnte la ditta bala, Ela rea de la fuperficie oc oitta piramide colonnale: verbi gratiarfía la piramide colonnalc.a bg d.oelaquale la fua fomita fia.a.e la fua bafa fia il circulo.big d.oel quate fia il centro.c. Ela li nea.a c.oztogonalmente fia rirta fopza il piano oel cercbio.b g d.e oal ponto.a.ala linea cir' cunfrentiale contenente il circulo.b g d. oe la bafa de la oata piramide oi colonna fe meni
 nife oal centro. c.le rettc.e ebe g.e d.cle fonno tutte iguali infraloze. E perche a e. eperpen diculare fopza il pianto oel arculo.bg d.fienno gliangolia'e b.a eg.a'e d.retti. Onde li' triä golifonno estogoniia é b a e g.a e d.e banole bafe igualiche fonno.e b.e g.e d.e illato.a e.e commune. Qndelilatifubtendentia gliangoli retticbe fonno.a b.a.g.a d. fonno infra lozo iguali. Eper quefto e manifeftocise tutte le rerte lincecle fi poffono inemare oal.a.ala linea circunferente. b g d. efiereigualia la linea, b .
Pícoza dico dxe multiplicato, a b. nela mita de la linea circunferente.b g d. fara larea oe la fuperficic oc la piramide:cioe larea olfuoza of la fuperficie a b g dila quale fuperficic e oal circulo de la bala.b $g$ d.infino ala fua fummita, efe nö fof fe coft. Illoza fia la multụlicatióe oc la linea.a $\mathrm{b}_{6}$ oc la mira ocl circulo. b g d. ina gtoze o minoze quella, cle facia larea oc la fuperficic oico clóquella, quantita cbe fe mul), tiplica per a b. a fare larca oe la fuperficiéfua minoz ouer magioze oe la mita oc la linea cir
 ro fopza il cerclio. g d. vna: figura rettí linea bauente e latie egliangoli igualicontenente quello:e fienno li lati inficmi agionti meno dxe lo ooppio ael. içdx fiala figura. Ikt.Eme nerola linea a b. laqualée perpendiculare fopea la linea.b's.in quefto modo. ABtencro la li nea.e t.fiennoli quadrati oc le litree.e b.7.btigualial quadrato oc la linea.e te commune a tuttifia il quadrato oe la pripendiculare, a e.firanno li quadrati oc le linee.e b.é.ba: agua, lial quadrato de la linea.e t.e communamentefagionga il quadrato de la perpendiculare.a e.fiennoli quadratioele lince.a e.cb.b t.cioc li quadrari oe le linee.a b.e.b t.iguali al qua; drato a t.onde langolo.a b t.e retto. perpendicularce adonca la Línea.a b.fopza la linca.t k. Sinnimente fimoltra latinea.a g.effere perpendiculare fopra.t. l.e.a d.fopza la linea;tl. Es perdsele rette, ab.a g.a d. fonno infralozo iguali viría oc la multiplicatione duna oi quelIe commo oel.a b.ne la mita oc lati oel triangolo.t E l.lembado oucr area de la fuperficicoe
 tenga quellatcioe quello dxe infral crrchio.b g d.e il ponto. a.e la mita de lari oel riangolo
 e meno de la lincaí se naggoze de la luperficie oe la piramida di colomina de e ümpoifibi. le. Zdonca non ne pofibule de la multiplicatione oe la linca a b.ne la linca dre fia nagiore oc la mita oel cerdrio.bg d.fia lembado ouer contincntia de la fuperficic. abgd. İinco.
 outto.a b.i.iç.nepuégalarea oc la fupficie ofla piramide. abgd. it multiplicare adōcaz la

rum: e partendofoldiper.20.neué \&. Ferche la lira pbiq; fitencfoldi.20. Le \&.poia farme 020:fipartano per la paluta oe quel ozo occurrente: fecondo liluoglbi. \& quelloch auanca
 çiocle 8.partite in la valuta de lozo occurrente fonno.8. Et fic in cctcris vifcurrendo: ver bigraria. poniamocle tu babiarcdure ale magiozivalutcouer magiozi monece quefta $\ddot{\boldsymbol{w}}$ tica of piciol: cio picioli numero.96598.Dico do pzima facci commo fifti oi fopza in li pe fio ozdinamente reducend o piuna ala inmediata moneta fequente:quale e cl foldo in que.
 cle fon.ıo.picioli, Epoia farne 8.partíaiqucfti foldi venutiper. 20. neucne. 402 , E que'
 valuta ocl oitto 020a8. E virratte lozo. Equello cle auançara fira 5 . Lömo fe volefie far sućli quali in quefto bauemo poito valere 8.7.luno. Le ditte \%. venute partirai per .7. I1e
 cioli ala magioz monta firanno ouc̈.57.8.3.f.9.8.10. E cofi regerate in tutte valute meno ni:reducendole ale magion:pt in ifta.

## Tertium netandum. Eadem viapzocedens.



Zuello che labiamo oetto oeli tita do vadano a numero:eancle a mefurs ofiacolma:longa:c rafa fecödo to ro ingordita:ficommo defopza dicemmo. In cglio:e pecio:e longos cozto:e i go2do diuerfamente 「e atendano: fecondole quantua:vt lupza declarauimus. Didxe bauendo tu octani ob baccio ox panno numero. 46595 . oe panni a volerli redu

 Ie quarte parturai per. 4 .e virratte bzaccia per cbe.4.fanno baaccio., E Lauaņo firrä quar, te.Epoilibzacci partirai per.4.e virratte câne;e lauançofiran bzaccia. Si commo bauefe li octaui pecditri partili in.2.neuen.23297. Efon quarti- Eauanca, I.doe e., octauo. Epoi parti.23297.per.4.e virranuc. 5824 . ÉE

 culte altrefinilitiper tefarai $z$ c.

Quartum notandum oe caratteribus praticis bocin opere vitatis.

8Eftiero eancozada notare quello impoztino licaratteri per noi in queftopera pritari acio le lozo abbzeninture fien intefe per clsilcgera bauengacle moltiper le pzopofte queftioni per fe fteffite apzendíno. D2on Dimanco piu fonno quelli oı poca paatica (perli quali pzincipalmente quefto libeo fifa) cbe non fornno quelli cur intendano. Eimpero qui fequente tuttilikaratteri:e abzeuiarure che per noi cōmumamente in queftolibzo fe paranno:oechiararemo: fi in larte menose ouer mercatozia: comnio in arte magioze:ouer algebza. E e qualipiu perli pefite monete:e mefure:cbe p al, trofonno tronati:ercepto in algebzache per forga ( oifferentie culfa) fo bifogno trouare. per clo non fi potte a tutte quantrita metter nome. 3 deo $z \bar{c}$.


Quefticaratterie abseuiature commo vedi. Alcunifonnodx piu de vina cofa repecfentano. Ferodxe ale volte pefo:e ale volte valuta dimonete. Si commo quefto 8 . .lx oicilira a palura or moneta:che fintende foldi,20. Elibxa a pefo cbe fintende once. 12 .e cofi quefta.p. doe vici.piu. picioli. pecce .piedi. porr la $\ddot{q}$
 quefti re repzefentara:fecondoel fuon dela materia de life contrira. Onde frale valute. $\overline{\mathrm{p}}$. oenota picioli. Framefure piedi. fra quantita de panni pesca. In operatione ox alcebza piu:c cofioe ciafcuna de laltre:fecondo liledsie le materie te repeefentarano luna oe le cofe ditte quial fuo incontro fidxe tu per te vfarailoingégno tuo:el qual bilogna fia fupple, mento a quello cbio mancaffe. Quia fuppletio fit loco ofectus. Wer doenone pofibile maiponere tutto quello doe alarte fe ricerca:ficommo e manifefto a quellidse di compone re volumife oelettano. Jurta ullud. Dicie pierndes nonomnia poffumus onnes:e cofi fa/
 rai ofelefequentiche fon peralgebza.

Ydem Hotädum or caratteribus algebzaticis.

Duć. oucati.
8. Lirc. lira. libza. libze. f. Foldo. foldi.

ס. Denaro. oenarl.
$\overline{\mathrm{p}}$. Biciolo.picioll.'pesça.
©. Dincia. once.
$\Phi^{1} \cdot q u a r t i \cdot \varphi^{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{3} \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{e} \cdot$
Qct. octruo. octaui.
Lba. câna. cảne.
b. Bzacio. braci.
mi. 2 Pina. mine. meno. mefetaria.
$\bar{m}^{3}$, QBarca. $\tilde{m}^{c}$, marclj.
K. Laratto. carati.
$\mathrm{g}^{2} \cdot$ grane grani.
G . Broffi groffoni.
Bbl. 2Bolognino.bolognin bolcone. $\nu^{3}$. 7 Iis.
$\mathrm{r}^{\mathrm{a}} . \mathfrak{\text { Regula. refta. }}$. ABua. multiplica. LDÃare. multùplicare. aß ${ }^{2}$ áto. multịlicato. Dzā. jifferentia. Diè. oifferenne.

K．$p^{2} \cdot$ ni．nio．
TR． $2^{2}$ ．co．cola．
安． $3^{3}$ ．ce．cenfo．
Re． $4^{2}$ ．cu．cabo．
TV． $5^{2}$ ．c．cc．cenfo decenfo．
N． $0^{3} \cdot p^{0} . r^{4}$ ．paimorclato．
TV． $7^{2}$ ．cc．cu．cenlo deabo ean
als cubo occenfo．
K．． $\mathbf{s}^{\mathrm{L}} .2^{\circ}$ ．r：fecundo rilaro．
K2． $9^{2}$ ．cc．ce．cc．cenfodecenfode cenfo．
Te． $10^{2}$ ．a．al．aubo vecubo．
TR． $11^{a}$ ．ce．$p^{0} \cdot r^{0}$ cenfo de printo relato．
T2． $12^{2} \cdot 3^{\circ} \cdot r^{\circ}$ terçorelato．
© $6.13^{3}$ ．cu．ce．ce．cubodecenfo
oecenfo．Qudi oir econuerfo． TV． $14^{3} .4^{\circ}$ ．re quarto relato．
oge $15^{3}$ ．cc． $2^{\circ}$ ．rí renfo ocectan， do relato．
5x． $16^{2}, c u . p^{0}$ ．r：cubo oxpzimo relato
Ǩ． $17^{3}$ ．ce．ce，ce．ce．cenfodecēfo дecenfo dccerfo．
Te． $18^{2} .5^{\circ} \cdot$ re：quinto relato．
ce．192．cu．ce：cu．cubo decenfo ơ cubo． 19 ucr．cèfo cubo abo． M゙． $10^{2} .6^{\circ} \cdot r^{\circ}$ fertrorelato．
 oe pitino rclato．
Kr． $22^{3}$ ．cu． $2^{\circ} \mathrm{r}^{\circ}$ cubo oc f（Dor r：
 TV． $24^{3} \cdot 7^{\circ} \mathrm{r}^{\mathrm{r}}$ ．（cptùno relato．
K． $25^{4}$ ．cu．ce．ce．ce．cubo дecêo orcenfo 刀ecéfo．⿴uercenfo de cubo occilifo occêfo．Quer cen fo occenfo acccinfo oe cubo．
Quc oia idem impoztant． te． $26^{3} \cdot 8^{\circ} \cdot r^{\circ}$ ．octano rclato． $\hat{K}^{2} .27^{3}, c e .4^{\circ}, r^{0}$ ．cenfo ox quar， co relato．
\％． $18^{2}$ ．cu．cu．cu．cubo ocabo occubo．
Fe． $29^{2}$ ．ce．ce． $2^{\circ}$ ．$r^{\circ}$ ．cenfo occê־ oe lecundo relato．
Wjo $0^{1}$ ．${ }^{0}$ ．nono relato． finis．

K．Kadici．
RT TR．IR adiciotradici．
W8．TRadici vnunerfale．©uer radici legata．©uoijireradici vnita．
Fex cu．Thadid cubas． $\tilde{\boldsymbol{q}}^{1} \cdot$ quantita．

## Biftinctio fexta Tractatus paimus．

fi commoancosa nclitheri noftri quatro voluıni oe fumili dicịlinc per noicöpilarilsauee mo wati：cioc in quello doc ali gioueni oe perofáa ùn citulai nel． 1476.9 acl quale non cou tanta copiofitaife tratto， $\mathfrak{E}$ andxe in quello dxea çara nel． 481.0 cafi piulunlie forti com
 franccico e paulo fratelliocröpiafi oa la gudeca：ocgnii incrcatante ill vincgia：figlduoli gis －fer Anconio．Sionto la cui ombea paterna e fracerna i lozpzopzia cara me relcuai．Ea fi mili f́cientie fotto la difciplina ox mifcr Donneneco bzagadino li in vinegia oa la ercelfa fi gnozialectoze oc ognifaétia publico ocpurata，Qual fo imediate fucceffoze：al perfpicacis， fimo f yedo octoze：difan absarco canonicomaftro paulo on la pergola fuo preceprou re．E oza a luital peciente el Asagnifico ct eximio ooctoze nifift Entonio conaro noftro condifripulo：fotto la ootrina oel ditto bzagadino．E quefto quando crauamo al fecolo． OBa oa poi che labito indegnamante od ferapbyco fan francefco er voto pigliamo：p of uerfípacfice conuenuto andare peregrinando．Eal peefate di perofcia per publicoemo． lumento a faniffation comuna：a finuli faculta ci recrouiamo．E fempze p ozdinc oe li noftri TReucredipzelat：marime ol reuerendiffimo．p．noftro geverale pacicite maeftro fran．
 oel pontificato oel fanctifimo in clazito．prinnocertio octauo．
 IR a toznando al propofito orli caratteri quefti：fonnomaxic in algebza ．Els uenga dx in infinitumsi polta procedcre non oimeno quãep al propofito nos ftro in quefto：li trenta＇gradiafcendentipar viaj et modumalgcbex et almuca， bala．Hooceft reftaurationis zoppofitionis fonno baftanti．Ef pur tu piu ne vozaiper tefteffo gradatis pozai fozmarne．Equeftifonnoligradi quafi modernamete cofi noiati bauenga als in turte le cofeli nomifiéno aplacito．E fe códo qualdse fimilitudi
 cloiarammo．E cofi aitcoza fonno a placito ruttili caratter quali noi qui babiamo pofti p
 coscio mimperito non eredefte neceffitaffero．De li quali poi in algcbza rrattādo formare， mo lozo libzettifi commo in quefto al fuoluogo vederai．Equelle figure oenançe poite

 nere apzeffoligreci fozon fecondo pfidozoetymologiarum；moltialtri pictagozad pria coa poi lui Pivomaco：oal qual el piu oe la fua aritbinctica Boe．pzefe．Ea peefo litatini fozon paima Epuleo epoi Boce of Ia geomerria forono liegyptia ab in vndatione hini pt ipre ibidem inducit． $\mathfrak{y}$ dco ipfiun lege qui optime ox buiafmodi materia iplerifos loris trat， tat qucm pluriesmemini me legife vade z $z$ fac fimiluer a pzoderittibi $7 \bar{C}$ ．

Diftinctiofexta or preproationibus z proportionatitatibus．Tra．pınus．ar．pzunnes．


Snuno clx oi numeri alcunta tofa ba fripto fempre ancoza in fiemt có galli oe mefure al quatro ba tractato：ei cópagnfa deffe od cömun loz veftumeto dittoppoztione．Egito fla manifefto ic be fi leggi oimoltipljy loz libzi：0ematlematicte focuilta có pilati： antid siginnafi；：cioe oe foyci：academia：peripatetici：platoni ci zçane oi oegna difciplina matlentatica illultrati，\＆Rella $\bar{q}$ Ie lni de aritbmetica：cior ox numeritrattando；ancosa oe gco metria：cioe de mifure largaméte diffee con quelle a giöfe（có） mo e outto）el loz cómun vclo oittoppostiōe．Inde oiuife dit， ta opa i．ı s．libzipartiali．De li g̈li．，o．fōno oe geomerria：cioe $\dot{p}^{\circ}$ ． $2^{\circ} \cdot 3^{\circ} .4^{\circ} .6^{\circ} .11^{\circ} .12 .13^{\circ} 114^{\circ} .15^{\circ}$ ．Equatro fonno ox aritbmetica
 （cöno fe oira）cofi feafpcta al nủo：cömo ala mefura．Del feuerino Bocrio âcosafe ben fi guarda il la fua aritl）mctica：troueraffe le foçe de geometria：e andle particulare mêtö̀e de
 tionc：maxime nel d́ıto）p fue ope oiffafamêre ỏ luna e dílaltra ifiemicōle，ppoztioni trat



Etficinifinitum in vitimis ipecicbus.que oia $z$ fin gula fupa Tbeozice ₹ riter Declarata funt. Ruarusjoiresex fequentibus cöclufionibus z cafibus manifeftelitteratio z val;


## PECULIAR SAYINGS OF PACIOLI

Chapter 1. "Where there is no order there is confusion."
2. "Every action is determined by the end in view."
3. "Defining diligently and truthfully so that truth will always guide you."
4. "More bridges are necessary for a good merchant than a lawyer cau make."
"The merchant is like a rooster, which of all the animals is the most alert, and in winter and summer keeps his night vigils and never rests."
"Also it is said that the head of the merchant has a hundred eyes and still they are not sufficient for all he has to say or do."
"The law helps those that are awake-not those that sleep."
"Dante says:
'My son, it behooves that you quit your laziness.
God promised the crown to the watchful ones.
He who lies on feathers or under cover will never amount to anything. Such a one leaves on this earth the same trace as the smoke in the air or foam on the water'."
"Work should not seem to you strange for Mars never granted a victory to those that spent their time resting."

A sage said to the lazy man to take the ant as an example.
Apostle Paul says that no oue will be worthy of the crown except he who shall fight valiantly for it.

Remember God and your neighbor.
Attend religious meditation every morning, for through this you will never lose your way.
By being charitable you will not lose your riches.
The Saviour in the book of St. Matthew admonishes, "Seek you Christians first the Kingdon of God and then the other temporal and spiritual things you will easily obtain."

18 and 31 Who does nothing makes no mistakes; who makes no mistakes learns nothing.
22 Officials do not bother about details.
23 Accounts are nothing else than the expressions in writing of the arrangement of his affairs. which the merchant keeps in his mind.

If you are in business and do not know all about it, your money will go like flies, that is, you will lose it.

29 Books should be closed each year, especially in partnership because frequent accounting makes for loug friendship.

33 If the losses are in excess of the gains-from which state of affairs may God keep every one who really lives as a good Christian.

35 If you do not put the place and date on a letter, you will be made fun of, because we say the letter which does not bear the date was written during the night, and the letter which does not bear the place we say that it was written in the other world and not in this one.


Tho mettepegno.10.contra. 15. vnaltro mette.20.contra.: 7. oimandafe die cbe uanraqio e quanto pc. fa cofí pima uedi quanto meritaria. 2 ode icontro a rata.cbe.10.a.15.e dife. $10 . a .15$.dye bara.2 v.airrabaucr.;o.donca uedi cbe nons ba debito fentro lyabiando. 27 oz uediclo límanca cle li mäclera da.27.a.;0.
 pitale refpecto a laltro.donca arçucficle latero babia uātaqio lí- $\frac{3}{2}$.del fuo capitale ds uol dir. s.per.c..deefi troua andre a queftomodo dicendo colui mettendo. ı o.tiraria. 1 .fe mes tefe. 100 cbe tirarauc. opera tiraria $150 . q u a l$ falua. boi p laltro oiraife.zo.uol. 7 . (b) no no



 tequate pde Inno īlla medefima pre uene a nągare lalero e cofii baratt.

Tauola del Quaderno.
De quelle cóe cle painciqalnieteföno neceffaric al uero mereatante:e ae lozdine a fapere te nere bene vn quaderıo cö lofuo çanale in uencria: e anche 1 ogni altro luogo. cas.s
De lapaina pec paincipal oe queltorractato detta inucntario:c dre cofa lía inuentarioie cö me fra mercarantífi babia a farc.
ca. 2

Clriliffima eroztationc:e falutiferidocumential bon mercatanteptinēti. ca. 4
Dela. $2^{3}$.pe paincipale orl perête tractato ditra dilịöne.cōme lafabbia a itenderece i cbe có fifte:circa al trafico.e deti..libei pzincipali del cozpo mercantefco. ca.s Del po.líbro ditto memoziale ouer fquartafoblio o uaibetta qillo cbe re itèda:e cömoielfo re babia a feriuere: eper chi.
$\mathrm{ca}^{*} .6$
 Eómo fe debino oittare le prirc f oitro memoziale cō exępli. $\mathrm{Cl}^{\circ} .8$
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Deli ovitermmi mel dittogionale vitatimanimei venetia:luno ditto per: laltroditto. A

## COMPARATIVE INDEX OF THE EARLIEST WRITERS

The following is a schedule showing comparatively the contents of the chapters of Pacioli, Manzoni, Pietra and Ympyn, so that the reader may have a quick perception of the extent to which Manzoni, Pietra and Ympyn have followed Pacioli. Only the most important items are given. Carefully note the coincidence that even the order in which the chapter is given practically remains unchanged from that of Pacioli.

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# COMPLETE TRANSLATION OF PACIOLI 

SECTION NINE--TREATISE XI.<br>PARTICULARS OF RECKONINGS AND THEIR RECORDING.

## CHAPTER 1.

## THINGS THAT ARE NECESSARY TO THE GOOD MERCHANT AND THE METHOD OF KEEPING A LEDGER WITH ITS JOURNAL, IN VENICE AND ELSEWHERE.

In order that the subjects of His Mlustrious Highness, the most honorable and magnanimous Duke of Urbino (D. U. D. S.-Docis Urbini Domini Serenissimi), may have all the rules that a good merchant needs, I decided to compile, in addition to the subjects already treated in this work, a special treatise which is much needed. I have compiled it for this purpose only, i. e., that they (the subjects) may whenever necessary find in it everything with regard to accounts and their keeping. And thereby I wish to give them enough rules to enable them to keep all their accounts and books in an orderly way. For, as we know, there are three things needed by any one who wishes to carry on business carefully. The most important of these is cash or any equivalent, according to that saying, Unum aliquid necessarium est substantia. Without this, business can hardly be carried on.

It has happened that many without capital of their own but whose credit was good, carried on big transactions and by means of their credit, which they faithfully kept, became very wealthy. We became acquainted with many of these throughout Italy. In the great republics nothing was considered superior to the word of the good merchant, and oaths were taken on the word of a good merchant. On this confidence rested the faith they had in the trustworthiness of an upright merchant. And this is not strange, because, according to the Christian religion, we are saved by faith, and without it it is impossible to please God.

The second thing necessary in business is to be a good bookkeeper and ready mathematician. To become such we have given above (in the foregoing sections of the book) the rules and canons necessary to each transaction, so that any diligent reader can understand it all by himself. If one has not understood this first part well, it will be useless for him to read the following.

The third and last thing is to arrange all the transactions in such a systematic way that one may understand each one of them at a glance, $i$. e., by the debit (debito-owed to) and credit (credito-owed by) method. This is very essential to merchants, because, without making the entries systematically it would be impossible to conduct their business, for they would have no rest and their minds would always be troubled. For this purpose I have written this treatise, in which, step by step, the method is given of making all sorts of entries. Although one cannot write out every essential detail for all cases, nevertheless a careful mind will be able, from what is given, to make the application to any particular case.

This treatise will adopt the system used in Venice, which is certainly to be recommended above all the others, for by means of this, one can find his way in any other. We shall divide this treatise in two principal parts. The one we shall call the Inventory, and the other, Disposition (arrangement). We shall talk first of the one and then of the other, according to the order contained in the accompanying Table of Contents, from which the reader may take what he needs in his special case.

He who wants to know how to keep a ledger and its journal in due order must pay strict attention to what I shall say. To understand the procedure well, we will take the case of one who is just starting in business, and tell how he must proceed in keeping his accounts and books so that at a glance he may find each thing in its place. For, if he does not put each thing in its own place, he will find himself in great trouble and confusion as to all his affairs, according to the familiar saying, Ubi non est ordo, ibi est confusio (Where there is no order, there is confusion). In order to give a perfect model to every merchant, we will divide the whole system, as we have said, in two principal parts, and we will arrange these so clearly that one can get good results from them. First, we will describe what the inventory is and how to make it.

## CHAPTER 2.

FIRST PART OF THIS TREATISE, WHICH IS CALLED INVENTORY—WHAT INVENTORY IS, AND HOW TO MAKE IT.

First, we must assume that every action is determined by the end in view, and in order to pursue this end properly, we must use every effort. The purpose of every merchant is to make a lawful and reasonable profit so as to keep up his business. Therefore, the merchants should begin their business with the name of God at the beginning of every book and have His holy

NOTE—The words in parentheses are the author's, as also the punctuation and paragraphing, as the original is extremely deficient in these. The words in italics are copied exact from the original.
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name in their minds. To begiu with, the merchant must make his inventory (inventario) in this way: He must always put down on a sheet of paper or in a separate book whatever he has in this world, personal property or real estate, beginning with the things that are most valuable and most likely to be lost, such as cash, jewels, silver, etc., for the real estate, such as houses, lands, lakes, meadows, ponds, etc., cannot be lost as personal property. Then all the other things must be put down one after another. In the said inventory give always first the day, the year, the place and your name. This whole inventory must be completed in one day, otherwise there will be trouble in the future in the management of the business.

As an example for you, I will give you, now, an idea as to how the inventory is to be made, so that you may use it as a guide in any particular case.

## CHAPTER 3.

## EXAMPLE OF AN INVENTORY WITH ALL ITS FORMAL REQUIREMENTS.

In the name of God, November 8th, 1493, Venice.
The following is the inventory of myself, N. N., of Venice, Street of the Holy Apostles.
I have written down systematically, or had written by Mr. So-and-So, this inventory of all my property, personal and real, what is owed to me (debiti), and what is owed by me (crediti), of which I on this said day find myself possessed in this world.

First Item: First I find myself possessed in cash, in gold and coin of so many ducats, of which so many are Venetian, and so many gold Hungarian ; of so many large florins made up of Papal, Siennese and Florentine, etc. The rest consists of many different kinds of silver and copper coins, i. e., troni, marcelli, papal and royal carlini and Florentine grossi, and Milanese testoni, etc.

Second Item: I also possess, in set and unset jewels, so-and-so many pieces, among which are many balassi set in gold, rings weighing so-and-so-many ounces, carats, grains, etc., per piece or in bulk, etc., which you can express in any manner you wish. There are so-and-so-many sapphires set on clamps for women; they weigh so much. And there are so-and-so-many rubies, unset, weighing so much. The rest consists of unpolished pointed diamonds, etc. Here you may give such descriptions and weight as you desire.

Third Item: I have clothes of many kinds; so many of such kind; and so many of such-and-such kind, etc., describing their condition, colors, linings, styles, ete.

Fourth Item: I have several kinds of silverware, as cups, basins, rammi, cosileri, piromi, etc. Here describe all the different kinds one by one, etc., and weigh each kind diligently. Keep an account of pieces and weights, and of the alloy, whether the Venetian or the one used at Ragusa, etc. Also mention the stamp or mark that they might have.

Fifth Item: I have so much massaria dei lini-that is, bed sheets, table cloths, shirts, handkerchiefs, etc., so many of each. Of the bed sheets, so many are made three-piece sheets, and so many are three and one-half, etc., mentioning whether the linen is Padua linen or some other kind, new or used; length so many braccia, etc.; so many shirts, etc.; table cloths of so many threads; so many big handkerchiefs and so many small, mentioning whether new or used, giving the different kind in your own way.

Sixth Item: I have so many feather beds and their respective pillows, mentioning whether the feathers are new or used, whether the pillow-cases are new or used, etc., which altogether or one by one weigh so much, marked with my mark or with some other mark, as the custom is.

Seventh Item: I have at home or in the store so much goods of different kinds: First, so many cases of ginger michino, weighing so many pounds, marked with such-and-such mark, and so on, describing each kind of said goods with all their marks that you might possibly give and with all the possible accuracy as to weight, number, measurement, etc.

Eighth Item: I have so many cases of ginger bellidi, etc., and so many sacks of pepper, long pepper or round pepper, depending on what it is; so many packages of cinnamon, etc., that weigh so much; so many packages of cloves, etc., that weigh so much, with fusti polvere and cappelletti or without, etc., and so many pieces of verzini weighing so much, and so much sandalwood, red or white, weighing so much, and so on, entering one item after another.

Ninth Item: I have so many skins for coverings, that is, so many white kids and so many albertoni or marchiani, etc., so many of such-and-such kind, etc., so many fox skins, so many tanned and so many raw, so many chamois skins tanned, and so many raw.

Tenth Item: I have so many fine skins, fore armenti, dossi varii, zebelini, etc., so many of such-andsuch kind, and so many of such-and-such kind-defining diligently and truthfully each time so that truth will always guide you, etc., distinguishing the things that ought to be entered by pieces from those that ought to be entered by weight, and those that ought to be entered by measurement, because in these three ways business is conducted everywhere ; certain things are reckoned by the bushel, others by the hundreds, others by the pound, others by the ounce, others by number, others by a conto (by single numbers) as leather goods or skins, others by the piece, as precious stones and fine pearls, etc.; so you will make a notation of each thing. These examples will serve as a guide for all the rest, etc.

Eleventh Item: I have in real estate: first, a house with so many stories, so many rooms, court yard, wells, garden, etc., situated in St. Apostle Street over the Canal, etc., adjoining such-and-such parties, etc., giving the names of the boundary line properties, making reference to the oldest and most reliable deeds, if there are any; and so, if you have more houses in different localities, you will enter them in a similar way.

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Twelfth Item: I have so many pieces of land under cultivation (fields or staiore or panora) ete., entering them by the name according to the usage of the country where you are, saying where they are situated, etc., as, for instance, a field of so many tavole, or canne, or pertiche, or bevolche, etc., situated in such-andsuch town in the Province of Padua or somewhere else, adjoining the land of so-and-so, giving all the boundary lines and referring to deeds or the description from the recorder's office, for which land you pay taxes in such-and-such municipality, which are worked by so-and-so with a yearly income of so much, and so on; you will enter all your possessions, etc., cattle, etc.

Thirteenth Item: I have in deposit with the Camera de l'Impresti (a bank), or with another bank in Venice, so many ducats ; or with the parish of Canareggio, etc., or part in one parish and part in another, giving the names under which they have been deposited, mentioning the book of the bank, the number of the page where your account is, and the name of the clerk who keeps said book, so that you can easily find your account when you go to get money, because in such offices they must keep very many accounts on account of the big crowd that sometimes goes there, and you must also see that dates are put down precisely so that you know when everything falls due and what the per cent. is.

Fourteenth Item: I have so many debtors (debitori) : one is so-and-so, who owes me (me dee dareshall give me) so many ducats, and so on, giving the names of each one, putting down all annotations as to the names, their family names, and how much they owe you (te debbono dore-shall have to give you) and why ; also whether there are any written papers or notarial instruments. In total I have so many ducats to collect, you will say, of good money, if the money is due from good people, otherwise you will say of bad money.

Fifteenth Item: I am debtor in total to the extent of so many ducats, etc. I owe so many to so-andso. Here mention your creditors (creditori) one by one, writing down whether there are any documents or writings or instruments; if possible, mention the persons present when the debt was incurred, the reason, the time and the place, for any case that might arise in court or out of court.

## CHAPTER 4.

## VERY USEFUL ADMONITION AND GOOD ADVICE TO THE GOOD MERCHANT.

And so, as we have said, you shall enter diligently every thing that you have, whether personal property or real estate, one by one, even if there were ten thousand items, putting down the condition and nature, whether deposited or loaned, etc. You will have to mention each thing in proper order in the said Inventory with all marks, names, surnames-as far as possible-for things are never too clear to a merchant on account of the different things that may happen in business, as anybody in business knows. Right is the proverb which says: More bridges are necessary to make a good merchant than a lawyer can make. Who is the person that can count all the things that can happen to a merchant-on the sea, on land, in times of peace and abundance and times of war and famine, in times of health or pestilence? In these crises he must know what to do, in the marketplaces and in the fairs which are held now in one place and now in another. For this reason it is right to say that the merchant is like a rooster, which of all the animals (animale) is the most alert and in winter and summer keeps his night vigils and never rests. And they say of the nightingale that it sings throughout the whole night; however, this may be in the summer during the hot weather, but not during the winter, as experience shows. Also it is said that the head of the merchant has a hundred eyes, and still they are not sufficient for all he has to say or to do. These things are told by people who have had experience in them, such as the Venetians, Florentines, Genoans, Neapolitans, Milanese, people of Ancona, Brescia, Bragama, Aquila, Sienna, Lucca, Perugia, Urbino, Forosempronio, Cagli, Ugubio, Castello, Brogo, Fuligno, Pisa, Bologna, Ferrara, Mantua, Verona, Vincenza, Padua, Trani, Lecce, Bitonto, which are among the first cities of Italy and have the first place in commerce-especially the cities of Venice and Florence, which adopt rules that respond to any need. And well say the municipal laws: Vigilantibus et non dormientibus jura subveniunt-which means, The law helps those that are awake, not those that sleep. So in the divine functions of the Holy Church they sing that God promised the crown to the watchful ones, and this was the instruction that Virgil gave to Dante as to his son, in Canto 24 of the Inferno, where he exhorts him to the work by which one can reach the hill of virtue: Now, my son, it behooves that you quit your laziness, said my master, for he who lies on feathers or under covers will never amount to anything. Whoever spends his life in this way, he said, will leave on this earth the same trace as the smoke in the air or foam on the water, etc.; and another Italian poet admonishes us in the same way, saying: Work should not seem to you strange, for Mars never granted a victory to those that spent their time resting. And it is also very good to quote that sage who said to the lazy man to take the ant as an example; and the Apostle Paul says that no one will be worthy of the crown except he who shall fight valiantly for it.

I wanted to bring in these reminders for your own good, so that the daily care about your business would not seem heavy to you, especially the writing down everything and putting down every day everything that happens to you, as we shall unfold in the next chapters. But above all, remember God and your neighbor; never forget to attend to religious meditation every morning, for through this you will never lose your way, and by being charitable, you will not lose your riches, as the poet says: Nec caritas, nec Missa minuit iter, etc. And to this our Savior exhorts us in the book of St. Matthew, when he says: Primum quaerite regulum dei, et haec omnia adicicietur vobis, which means: Seek you, Christians, first the kingdom of God and then the other temporal and spiritual things
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you will easily obtain, because your Heavenly Father knows very well your needs, etc.
And this I hope will be sufficient as an instruction for you to make the Inventory, ete., and to do other things well.

## CHAPTER 5.


#### Abstract

SECOND PRINCIPAL PART OF THIS TREATISE NAMED DISPOSITION (ARRANGE-MENT)-WHAT IS UNDERSTOOD BY IT-WHAT IT CONSISTS OF IN BUSINESS, AND THE THREE PRINCIPAL BOOKS OF THE MERCHANT.


#### Abstract

Comes now the second principal part of this treatise, which is called disposition, and of this I have to talk more at length than of the first part, in order to make it very clear. I will divide it in two parts. We shall call the one, Corpo overo monte de sutto el trafico; the other, Corpor overo monte de botega (Commerce in general, and Your store in particular).

First, we shall speak of commerce in general and its requirements. Immediately after the Inventory, you need three books to make the work proper and easy. One is called Meinorandum (Memoriale), the second Journal (Giornale), and the third Ledger (Quaderno). Many, on account of their small business, use only the last two, that is, the journal and the ledger.

We shall speak about the first-that is, of the memorandum book, and thereafter of the other two, about their makeup, and how they should be kept. First of all, we will give the definition of the memorandum book.

\section*{CHAPTER 6.}

OF THE FIRST BOOK, WHICH IS CALLED MEMORANDUM BOOK (MEMORIALE), OR SCRAP BOOK (SQUARTA LOGLIO), OR BLOTTER (VACHETTA). WHAT IS UNDERSTOOD BY IT AND HOW ENTRIES SHOULD BE MADE IN IT AND BY WHOM.


The memorandum book, or, according to others, scrap book or blotter, is a book in which the merchant shall put down all his transactions, small or big, as they take place, day by day, hour by hour. In this book he will put down in detail everything that he sells or buys, and every other transaction without leaving out a jot; who, what, when, where, mentioning everything to make it fully as clear as I have already said in talking about the Inventory, so that there is no necessity of saying it over again in detail. Many are accustomed to enter their inventory in this book, but it is not wise to let people see and know what you possess. It is not wise to enter all your personal property and real property in this book. This book is kept on account of volume of business, and in it entries should be made in the absence of the owner by his servants, or his women if there are any, for a big merchant never keeps his assistants idle; they are now here, now there, and at times both he and they are out, some at the market place and some attending a fair, leaving perhaps at home only the servants or the women who, perhaps, can barely write. These latter, in order not to send customers away, must sell, collect or buy, according to the orders left by the boss or owner, and they, as well as they can, must enter every transaction in this memorandum book, naming simply the money and weights which they know; they should note the various kinds of money that they may collect or take in or that they may give in exchange. As far as this book is concerned, it is not as important to transfer to standards the various kinds of coin handled as it is with the journal and ledger, as we will see hereafter.

The bookkeeper will put everything in order before he transcribes a transaction in the journal. In this way, when the owner comes back he will see all the transactions, and he may put them in a better order if he thinks necessary. Therefore, this book is very necessary to those who have a big business. It would be too much trouble to put down in a beautiful and orderly way every transaction immediately after it take place, in books which are authentic and kept reat with care. You must make a mark on the cover of this book, as well as on all the others, so that you can distinguish them when, in the process of the business, the book is filled or has served for a certain period of time and you take another book. You must take another book when the first one has been used entirely, yet many are accustomed in different localities to balance annually thesc books although they are not full; and they do likewise with the cther books not yet mentioned, as you will see hereafter.

On the second book you should put another marl different from the first, so that at any time you can trace your transaction easily. For this purpose we use the date. Among true Christians there is the good custom to mark their first books with that glorious sign from which every enemy of the spiritual flees and before which all the infernal spirits justly tremble-that is, the holy cross, by which in our tender years we begin to learn to read. The books that follow, you may mark in alphabetical order, calling A the second, and B the third, etc. So that we call the first books with the Cross, or Memorandum with Cross, and the second Memorandum A, Journal A, Ledger A. The pages of each of these books ought to be marked for several reasons known to the merchant, although many say that this is not necessary for the Journal and Memorandum books. The transactions are entered day by day, one under the other, in such way that it may be easy to trace them. This would be all right if all the trausactions of one day would not take more than one page; but, as we have seen, for many of the bigger merchants, not one, but several pages have to be used in one day. If some one would wish to do something crooked, he could tear out one of the pages and this fraud could not be discovered, as far as the dates are concerned, for the days would

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follow properly one after the other, and yet the fraud may have been committed. Therefore, for this and other reasons, it is always good to number and mark each single page in all the books of the merchants; the books kept in the house or kept in the store.

## CHAPTER 7.

## OF THE MANNER IN WHICH IN MANY PLACES MERCANTILE BOOKS ARE AUTHENTICATED, WHY AND BY WHOM.

All these books, according to the good customs of several countries where I have been, should be taken and shown to a certain mercantile officer such as the Consuls in the City of Perosa employ, and to him you should state that those are the books in which you intend to write down, or somebody else write down for you, all your transactions in an orderly way; and also state in what kind of money the transactions therein should be entered-that is, whether in lire di Picioli, or in lire di Grossi, or in ducats and lire, etc., or in florins and denari, or in ounces, tari, grani, denari, etc. The good merchant should put down these things always on the first page of his book, and if afterwards the handwriting should be done by somebody else than the one stated at the beginning of the book, this should be recorded at the office of the said officer. The clerk should mention all this in the records of the said officer-that is, on such and such a day you presented such and such books, marked with such and such mark, which books are named, one so-and-so, the other so-and-so, etc.; of which books one has so many pages, another so many, etc., which books you said would be kept by you or by so-and-so; but that it may be that in said Memorandum Book or Scrap Book or Blotter, some person of your family might enter said transaction, as explained before. In this case, the said clerk shall write down on the first page of your books, in his own handwriting, the name of the said officer, and will attest to the truth of everything and shall attach the seal of that office to make the books authentic for any case in court when they might be produced.

This custom ought to be commended exceedingly ; also the places where the custom is followed. Many keep their books in duplicate. They show one to the buyer and one to the seller, and this is very bad, because in this way they commit perjury. By presenting books to the said officer, one cannot easily lie or defraud. These books, after they have been carefully marked and authenticated, shall be kept in the name of God in your own place, and you are then ready to start your business. But first you shall enter in an orderly way in your Journal all the different items of the Inventory in the way that I will tell you later. But first you must understand how entries should be made in this Memorandum Book.

## CHAPTER 8.

HOW ENTRIES SHOULD BE MADE IN THE SAID MEMORANDUM BOOK, AND EXAMPLES OF THE SAME.

We have said already, if you will remember, that any one in your family can make entries in the said Memorandum Book, or Scrap Book or Blotter. Therefore, it cannot be fully stated how the entries should be made, because some members of your family will understand and some will not. But the common custom is this: Let us say, for instance, that you bought several pieces of cloth-for instance, 20 white bresciani, at 12 ducats apiece. It will be enough simply to make the entry in this way: On this day we have or I have bought from Mr. Filippo d'Rufoni of Brescia, 20 pieces of white bresciani. These goods are at Mr. Stefano Tagliapietra's place; one piece is so long, according to the agreement, and paid for at so many ducats, etc., marked with such and such number, etc. Yon mention whether the cloth is a trelici, or a la piana, wide or narrow, fine or medium, whether the Bergamo kind, or Vincenza, or Verona, or Padua, or Florence, or Mantua. Also you have to state here whether the transaction was made through a broker and whether it was made in cash entirely or part only in cash and part on time, stating the time, or whether it was part in cash and part in trade. In this case you must specify the things that were given in exchange, number, weight, measurement, and the price of the bushel or of the piece, or of the pound, etc., or whether the transaction was all by payment on time, stating the time when the payment should be made, whether on Galia de Barutto, or on Galia de Fiandra, or on the return day of a ship, or on the date of some fair, or other festivity, as for instance, on the next harvest day or on next Easter, or on next Christmas, or on Resurrection day or Carnival day, etc., according to what was understood in the transaction. Finally, I must say that in this memorandum book nothing should be omitted. If it were possible, it should be noted what many others had said during the transaction because, as we have said about the Inventory, the merchant never can be too plain.

## CHAPTER 9.

OF NINE WAYS IN WHICH THE MERCHANT USUALLY BUYS, AND THE GOODS WHICH IT IS MORE OR LESS NECESSARY TO BUY ON TIME.

Since we are talking about buying, you must know that usually you can make your purchase in nine ways-that is: either in cash or on time; or by exchanging something, which is usually called a trade; or partly in cash and partly on time; or partly in cash and partly by trading and partly on time; or by draft (assegnatione de ditta) ; or partly by draft and partly on time, or partly by draft and partly by trading. In these nine ways it is customary to make purchases. If you would make your purchases in some other way
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you must state in your memorandum book with precision the way that you have made the purchase, or have somebody else do it for you, and you will do well.

You buy on time usually when you buy guati or oats, wines, salt, remnants from a butcher shop, and fats. In these cases, the seller promises to the buyer to give all the guati that he will have in that season. The butcher will sell you and promises to give you all the hearts, skins, fat, etc., that he will have during that year. This kind for so much a pound, that kind for so much a pound, ete., and similarly for the fat of beef, of mutton, etc.; the black skins of mutton at so much apiece ; and the white mutton skins, etc., and so with the oats, or guati; you must specify the price for each bushel or other measure and the kind of oats as is the custom at Chiusi de Perugia. In buying guati you must see whether they are of our city San Sepolcro, or Mercatello, or Sant' Angelo, or Citta de Costello, or Forli, etc.

In this memorandum book, whether kept by you or by others, you must mention every single point. You state the things in a simple way as they happened, and then the skillful bookkeeper, after four or five days, or eight days, may enter all these transactions from the said memorandum book into the Journal, day by day; with this difference, though, that it is not necessary for him to put down in the Journal all the long lines of words that were used in the memorandum book, because it is sufficient to put them down in an abridged way, and besides, references should always be made from one book to the other. Those that are used to keeping these three books in the way we have said never must enter one thing in Journal if they have not first entered it in the memorandum book. This will be enough as to the arrangement of the said memorandum book, whether it is kept by you or others. Remember that there are as many ways to buy as to sell; therefore, I need not explain the ways of selling, because you knowing of the ways of buying can understand the selling.

## CHAPTER 10.

THE SECOND IMPORTANT MERCANTILE BOOK WHICH IS CALLED JOURNAL; WHAT IT IS, AND HOW IT SHOULD BE KEPT IN AN ORDERLY WAY.

The second common mercantile book is called the Journal (Giarnale) which, as we have said, must have the same mark that is on the memorandum book and the pages marked as we have said in talking of the memorandum book.

Always at the beginning of each page you must put down the date, and then, one after another, enter all the different items of your inventory.

In this Journal, which is your private book, you may fully state all that you own in personal or real property, always making reference to the inventory papers which you or others may have written and which are kept in some box, or chest, or filza, or mazzo, or pouch, as is customary and as is usually done with letters and other instruments of writing.

The different items entered in the said Journal ought to be entered there in a neater and more systematic way, not too many or too few words, as I will show in the few following examples. But first of all you must know that there are two words or expressions (termini) necessary in the keeping of a Journal, used according to the custom of the great City of Venice, and of these I will now speak.

## CHAPTER 11.

THE TWO EXPRESSIONS USED IN THE JOURNAL, ESPECIALLY IN VENICE, THE ONE CALLED "PER," AND THE OTHER "A," AND WHAT IS UNDERSTOOD BY THEM.

As we have said, there are two expressions (termini) used in the said Journal ; the one is called "per," and the other is called "a," each of which has a meaning of its own. "Per"' indicates the debtor (debitore) one or more as the case may be, and "a," creditor (creditore), one or more as the case may be. Never is any item entered in the Journal which also is to be entered in the Ledger, without preceding it by one of the two expressions. At the beginning of each entry, we always provide "per," because, first, the debtor must be given, and immediately after the creditor, the one separated from the other by two little slanting parallels (virgolette), thus, //, as the example below will show.

## CHAPTER 12.

HOW THE ENTRY SHOULD BE MADE INTO THE JOURNAL BY MEANS OF THE DEBIT and the credit, with many examples. The Two other expressions used in THE LEDGER, THE ONE CALLED "CASH," AND THE OTHER "CAPITAL," AND WHAT SHOULD BE UNDERSTOOD BY THEM.

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## EXAMPLE OF MAKING AN ENTRY IN THE JOURNAL.

## FIRST. November 8, MCCCCLXXXXIII in Venice.

Debit 1. Credit 2.

Per cash // A-Capital of myself so and so, etc. In cash I have at present, in gold and coin, silver and copper of different coinage as it appears in the first sheet of the Inventory in cash, ete., in total so many gold ducats and so many silver ducats. All this is our Venetian money; that is counting 24 grossi per ducat and 32 picioli per grosso in gold is worth: L_(Lire), S. .
For the second item you shall say this way:
SECOND. Per mounted and unmounted precious stones of several kinds //. A capital ditto for so many mounted belassi, etc., weighing, etc., and so many sapphires, etc., and rubies and diamonds, etc., as the said Inventory shows to which, according to current prices I give these values: Belassi worth, etc.; and so you shall state a price for each kind in total that are worth so many ducats. Their value is

After you have once named the day, the debtor and the creditor, you may say for brevity-if you don't make any other entry in between: On the day ditto, per ditto, // a ditto.

THIRD. Per silver //. A ditto-by which capital is understood-for several kinds of silver which at present I possess-that is, wash basins so many, so many coppers, so many cups, so many pironi, and so many cosilier, etc., weighing in total so much. Their value is :

L , S. $\qquad$ G $\qquad$ P
You shall give all the details in entering these items for everything as you have them in the Inventory, giving to each thing a customary price. Make the prices rather higher than lower ; for instance, if it seems to you that they are worth 20 , you put down 24 , so that you can make a larger profit; and so you will enter everything, putting down for each thing its weight, number, value, etc.

FOURTH. Per woolen clothes //. A ditto, for so many elothes of such and such color, etc., of such and such style, ete., lined, ete., new or used, etc., for myself or for my wife or for my children, I give the total value, according to the current price, so many ducats. And for cloaks, so many of such and such color, etc., and so on, for all the other clothes: L

FIFTH. Per linen //. A ditto, for so many bed sheets, ete., and put down their number and value as the Inventory shows:

SIXTH. Per feather beds //. A ditto, etc., for so many feathers-and here put down all that the Inventory shows, number and value: $\quad \mathrm{L} .$.

SEVENTH. Per ginger //. A ditto, for so many packages, etc., giving all the details that are contained in the Inventory, number, value, aecording to common prices, etc., so many ducats:
$\qquad$
In this way you can eontinue to enter all the other items, making a separate entry for each different lot, and as we have said before, giving the current prices, number, marks, weights, as the Inventory shows. Indicate only one kind of money, to which you reduce the estimated values. In the column for the amounts, only one kind of money should appear, as it would not be proper to have appear in this column different kinds of money.

You shall close each entry in the Journal by drawing a line from the end of the last word of your descriptive narrative (explanation) up to the column of the figures. You shall do the same in the memorandum book, and as you transfer an entry into the Journal from the memorandum book, you shall draw a single diagonal line (una sola riga a traverso) through it in this way /; this will show that this item has been entered (posta) in the Journal.

If you should not draw this line through the entry, you shall check off (lanciarai) the first letter of the beginning of the entry, or the last letter, as we have done at the beginning of this ; or otherwise you shall use some other sign by which you will understand that the said item has been transferred into the Journal. Although you may use many various and divers expressions or marks, nevertheless you must try to use the common ones which are used by the other merehants, so that it will not look as if you would deviate from the usual mereantile custom.

CHAPTER 13.
THIRD AND LAST PRINCIPAL MERCANTILE BOOK CALLED THE LEDGER. HOW I'T IS TO BE KEPT. ITS ALPHABET (INDEX), AND HOW THIS CAN BE KEPT SINGLE AND DOUBLE.

After you have made all your entries in the Journal in an orderly way, you must transfer them to the third book, called Ledger (Quaderno Grande, i. e., big book). This Ledger contains usually twiee as many pages as the Journal. In it there must be an alphabst or repertory or "trovarello" (finding key) according to some ; the Florentines call it "Stratto." In this index you shall write down all the debtors and ereditors in the order of their initial letter, together with the number of their respeetive pages. You shall put the names that begin with A in the A page, etc.

This Ledger, as we have said before, must bear the same sign or mark that is on the Journal and memorandum book; its pages should be numbered; and at the top at the right margin as well as at the left margin, you shall put down the date. On the first page you shall enter cash as debtor. As in the Journal, so in the Ledger, eash should be entered on the first page. It is customary to reserve the whole of the first page to cash, and not to enter anything else either under the debit (in dare) or the credit (in havere). This because the eash entries are more numerous than all others on account of almost continuously paying out and receiving money; therefore, it needs much spaee. This Ledger must be ruled, and should have as many lines as there are kinds of money that you want to enter. If you enter lire, soldi, denari and picioli, you shall draw four lines, and in front of lire you shall draw another line in order to put in the number of the pages of the Ledger debit and credit entries.

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Before these lines you shall draw two more lines wherein to mark the dates as you go on, as you have seen in the other books, so that you may find each item quickly. This book shall also bear the sign of the cross as the others.

CHAPTER 14.
HOW THE ENTRIES SHOULD BE TRANSFERRED FROM THE JOURNAL INTO THE LEDGER AND WHY, FOR EACH ENTRY OF THE JOURNAL, YOU HAVE TO MAKE TWO IN THE LEDGER; HOW ENTRIES IN THE JOURNAL SHOULD BE CANCELLED. THE TWO NUMBERS OF THE PAGES OF THE LEDGER WHICH ARE PLACED IN THE MARGIN OF EACH ENTRY AND WHY.

For each one of all the entries that you have made in the Journal you will have to make two in the Ledger. That is, one in the debit (in dare) and one in the credit (in havere). In the Journal the debtor is indicated by per, the creditor by a, as we have said. In the Ledger you must have an entry for each of them. The debitor entry must be at the left, the creditor one at the right; and in the debitor entry you must indicate the number of the page of the respective creditor. In this way all the entries of the Ledger are chained together and you must never make a credit entry without making the same entry with its respective amount in the debit. Upon this depends the obtaining of a trial balance (bilancio) of the Ledger.

There can not be a closing (saldo) because there must be as much in credit as there is in debit. In other words, you shall add together all the debit entries, even if there are ten thousand, on a separate sheet, and then add together in the same way all the credit entries; the totals of the one should be the same as the totals of the other; otherwise it would show that some mistake has been made in the Ledger. We will speak at length about this when we talk about the way of making the trial balance (bilancio). And since for one entry of the Journal you make two in the Ledger, you shall draw two diagonal lines as you make the transfer-that is, if you first transfer the debit entry, you shall first draw a diagonal line (riga a traverso) at the beginning of the entry in the Journal which shows that the entry has been posted (posta) to the debit into the Ledger. If you transfer the credit entry, either at this time or later, as it often happens that the bookkeeper can make two or three entries on the same page in order to prevent his coming back to write on that same page-in which case he should draw a line at the right side where the entry terminates. This will show that the entry has been transferred to the credit of the Ledger. These two lines, you may see in the preceding diagram, drawn in the margin by the first cash entry; the one is called debit line, and the other credit line. At the side, in the marginal part, you shall write down two numbers before the beginning of the entry, the one under the other. The upper indicates at what page of the Ledger the debit entry is, and the lower indicates the page of the Ledger where the credit is, as you will see at the cash entry in the above example, like this $\frac{1}{2}$, without a line between them. Some are accustomed to draw a line in between, like this, $\frac{1}{2}$. This does not matter, but it looks nicer without the line between, so that the figures will not appear to the reader as if they were fractions. The upper figure, 1 , means cash was entered in the first page of the Ledger, and capital was entered in the second page of the said Ledger; the cash on the debit, and the capital on the credit side. You should know that the closer to the debtor you can place the creditor, the nicer it will look. It is just the same, however, no matter where it is; but it may look bad on account of the date which at times must be put between entries, and it makes it difficult then to find the dates. We can not tell you everything fully, but you with your natural ingenuity must guide yourself. Therefore you always try to put the said creditor immediately after its debtor on the same line or on the line immediately following without entering anything else in between, for whenever there is a debit item there must exist at the same time a credit item. For this reason, get the one as near as possible to the other.

## CHAPTER 15.

THE WAY IN WHICH THE CASH AND CAPITAL ENTRIES SHOULD BE POSTED IN tHE LEDGER IN THE DEBIT AND THE CREDIT. THE DATE WHICH AT THE TOP OF THE PAGE IS WRITTEN DOWN ACCORDING TO THE ANCIENT USE. CHANGING OF THE SAME. HOW TO DIVIDE THE SPACE ON THE PAGES FOR SMALL AND LARGE ACCOUNTS AS THE BUSINESS REQUIRES.

After having told you these things for your instruction, we write now the first entry of the cash in the debit column, and then the first entry of the capital in the credit column, in the Ledger. But, as we have said, you shall write down in the Ledger the year in the old way by using the alphabet, thus: MCCCCLXXXXIII, etc. It is not customary to put the day at the top in the Ledger as in the Journal, because one account in the Ledger may have several dates, and therefore you can not keep the dates in order by putting them at the top; but you shall put the days in the body of the entry, as you will understand hereafter.

We put the day to one side, in the space of which I have spoken, just before the entry. If an item refers to a transaction which happened in a different year than that written at the top of the page, which happens when one does not balance and transfer his books at the end of each year, then this year shall be put on the side, in the margin near the entry of the item to which it refers. This only happens in the Ledger, and can not happen in the other books. In making this entry for the year, use the antique letters, which are neater,

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although it does not matter very much.
Thus, you shall put it this way:
JESUS
MCCCCLXXXXIII.
Cash is debtor (dee dare-shall give) on November 8, "per" capital. On this day I have in moneys of different kinds, gold and other coins; page 2:
L. $\mathrm{X}^{\mathrm{m}}, \mathrm{S} . \ldots$ $\qquad$
Here you do not need to be very lengthy if you have already given the description in the Journal. Try to be very brief.

At the beginning of the page we say more, but in the entries following it is enough to say : on ditto, "per" such and such ; page, etc.,
L.

After you have made the entry in this way, you shall cancel in the Journal as I have explained to you. Then in the credit side you shall write down this way:

JESUS $\qquad$ MGCCCLXXXXIII.
Capital of myself, so and so, is creditor (dee havere-shall have) on November 8, "per" cash. On this day I have in cash, in gold and other kinds of money; page 1:

This entry is also sufficient; express yourself briefly for the reason above said. If there are other items to be entered in the same account, it will be enough to say, on ditto, "per" such and such, etc., as has just been shown. At the end of this treatise, I will give you an example, and thus you will go on expressing yourself briefly especially in those things which are private-that is, of which you do not have to give an account to any one. But as to other things for which you have to give an account to other people, it will be better for you to be more explicit, although for explanations we always rely on the Journal. Then you will cancel, by drawing a line, the credit entry in the Journal as I have said above in Chapter 12. In the margin, just opposite the entry, you shall write down the two numbers of the pages where the debit and credit entries are. That is, you should put the number of the debit page above, and the number of the credit page below, as we have done above in the cash entry. Then you shall at once enter in the alphabet or repertory (index) this debtor and this creditor, each one under its own letter as I have told you before. That is, cash at the letter C, by saying in this way: Cash, page 1. And capital also at the letter C, saying: Capital belonging to me, page 2. And so on, you shall enter (in this repertory) all the creditors under their respective letters, so that you may find them easily in the Ledger mentioned.

Take notice, that if by any chance you should lose this Ledger through robbery, or fire, or shipwreck, etc., if you have either of the other two books, that is, the memorandum book or Journal, you can, by means of this book always make up another Ledger with the same entries, day by day, and enter them on the same pages on which they were in the last book; especially so, if you have the Journal in which, when you transferred the different entries into the Ledger, you wrote down at the margin the two numbers of the debit entry page, and the credit entry page, the one above the other, which two numbers indicated the pages of the ledger where the two entries had been entered. In this way you can duplicate your Ledger. This is enough said for the posting of one entry.

For the second entries, which pertains to precious stones, you shall enter in the Ledger as follows:
FIRST, without my telling it to you over again, you shall write down at the top of the page the date, if there has been no date written before because of another account, for at times on the same page two or three accounts are made. Sometimes you won't give much space to one special account because you know that you will not have to use that account over again. Therefore you will give to this account a smaller space than the space you give to other accounts which you had to use more, as we have said above in Chapter 13, when talking about cash and capital, to which we give the whole page, as we have to use these two accounts very often because of the many transactions. This is done in order to lessen transfers.

Now then, after you have found the proper place (in the ledger), you shall write down on the leftbecause the debtor must always be at the left: Precious stones of many kinds debit (dienno dare-shall give), on November 8, per capital, for so many pieces, etc., weighing so much, so many are counted balassi, etc., and so many sapphires, etc., and so many rubies, etc., and so many unpolished diamonds in bulk (or divide the different kinds), for a value of so many ducats; page 2:

L40; S0; G0; P0.
You shall cancel this item in the Journal on the debit side by drawing a line as I have told you in Chapter 12. And then you will go to capital, and you shall enter this entry with fewer words, for the reasons above expressed in this chapter, writing it down on the credit side under the first entry that you have already made, and you shall express yourself this way:

On the day, or ditto, for precious stones of several kinds, as it appears at page 3: L40; S0; G0; P0.
After which you shall draw another line on the credit side of the Journal, as I have shown in Chapter 12; you shall put down in the margin the two numbers of the pages of the Ledger in which you have made these entries, one above the other, as I have told you. We shall say, for instance, that you have entered the debit entry at page 3; the capital entry will still appear at page 2, as long as that page is not filled. lie liabaftäte zē. Epolta cbelaraial oitto $\mathfrak{q} d e r n o$. Eafetrata in gioznale.e tu fubito lapor,
 5. fo.pebeliza la pferiraicöe idiuerfi pacfiacade cbe quii uincgia nolto fícoftuma pone,


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 E altre. 4 ptite poífu fequçtiocl tuo mobile.cioe argēti.pani.lini. letri or piuma

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 perr çnṭcri medsinli möte a refufo. i colli dirai cōe a te pare zċ. Al oitto do fintēde caue dal.pclee li difopza imediate larai pozdific or oitro iuẽtario.cöc oícêmo difopza cap ${ }^{\circ}, 12^{\circ}$.
 ğlime retrouo bauere in lemani aldf pîte metto dicomĩ cosfo valere el ci.o vero la 8. ič.


Ecoli polta ch larai nel gioznale. Etual memoziale.o vero inuétario.ladipéna.e laia.al

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 no difopza po cbe cōe oicēno difopzacap. $15:$ El oinō ficoltuma pore fopza nel pin! ó lacarta oel quaderno prifpetto dbe in âlla inedefima facia potrcbono eêre piuprite 3 sincr fi octitozi e creditozilequalibēdse lenafdino fottovn milefimo. OM a fíranno in oiucrfi ine fic çorni.cūe oifcozrēdo p tutro poi apzendere. E ̣̂do bene ancoza in ditta facia dellibzo grande no vi foffe altro de $1^{2}$. Sola ptita oi caffa.o oaltroancoza el çano pofto difop:a. mel quaderno.nö fíporrebbe feruare pedx in ditta prita.scosira dinctere cafi ocorfi in oucrfi mefli. E die p älto e clocliantichi difopza nel quaderno nö bano ilibri mercatefcbi vfitato mettere cl giozno.pde non bano ueduto verfo ne via ne modo cbe con uerita fipofia alet. tarcilo $z \bar{c}$. L aqual partita its dare cofi porrai oícēdo $z \bar{c}$.
5 ençcri me dsini.inmonte.o uero colli zc.dien oare a di-8.nonembze per cauedal.per colli tanti zc.pefano. §.tante zc.quali mi trouo baucre in cafa. oucromagaçenal prefente qual of comuncoifoltimo valere el cento zc.ouc.tanti zc. E per cuttimonta ouc. q. $\tilde{p} . z c$, ral carri. 2.
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This example will guide you in other cases.
After you have made the entries in the Ledger and marked it in the Journal, you shall put it at once in the index as I have told you above in this chapter-that is, under the letter G or Z, according as to how Gioie (stone) is pronounced. In Venice the custom is to pronounce it with Z; in Tuscany, with G. Guide yourself according to your own understanding.

## CHAPTER 16.

HOW THE ENTRIES RELATIVE TO THE MERCHANDISE OF WHICH ONE IS POSSESSED ACCORDING TO HIS INVENTORY, OR OTHERWISE, SHOULD BE MADE IN THE LEDGER BOTH IN THE DEBIT AND THE CREDIT.

You will be able to transfer easily by yourself from the Inventory to the Journal the four items of your personal goods-that is, silver, linen, feather beds, clothes, etc., exactly as you write them in the Inventory, as we explained in Chapter 6. This Inventory was not contained in the memorandum book, for the reasous therein expressed.

And as to how to make these entries in the Journal and the Ledger, and as to how to record them in the Index, I will leave to your ability, on which I count very much.

We shall proceed to enter in the Journal, as well as in the Ledger, the seventh item (of the Inventory), which pertains to Ginger. This must be a sufficient instruction for you by which to make any other entry relative to your merchandise. You should always have in mind their number, weights, measurements and values according to the different ways in which it is customary to make purchases or sales among merchants in the Rialto, or elsewhere. It is not possible to give here full examples for all these operations, but from those few that we give here you will be able to understand how to go ahead in any other case. For if we wanted to give you an example of all the ways in which merchants do business in Trani, Lecce, Bari and Bitonto-that is, to give you the names of their weights, measurements, etc., and also to tell you about the ways that they use them in Marca and in our Tuscany, this would make our treatise very long, which, on the contrary, I intend to make short.

As to this seventh item to be entered in the Journal, we shall proceed thus: Per Ginger in bulk or package-you shall express yourself as you like- // a ditto-by which capital is understood, because you have already mentioned it in the entry immediately preceding, when you entered your second item from the inventory, that is, precious stones-as we said in Chapter 12-I possess on this day so many packages weighing so much, or I possess so many pounds, if in bulk, according to the current prices, of a value by the hundred or by the pound, of so many ducats; in total I give them the value of so many ducats.

L $\qquad$
After you have entered it in the Journal in this way, you shall cancel it in the memorandum book or inventory, as we have said in Chapter 12, and you shall do the same for the other items. Of this entry, as we have said, as well as of any entry made in the Journal, you shall make two different entries in the Ledger; that is, one in the debit and the other in the credit.-See Chapter 14. In making the entry in the Ledger in the debit, you shall proceed in this way: First you shall put the year, in case there is none, at the top of the page, without there putting down the day, for, as we have said in Chapter 15, it is not customary to put down the day at the beginning of the page of the Ledger because on that same page several entries may be made under the debit and credit which, while belonging to the same year, refer to transactions made in different months and days. Even if on that page of the Ledger there was only one cash entry or other entry, the day put at the top of the page could not be very well kept because, under the said entry, it would be necessary to write down transactions which happened in different months and days. For this reason the ancient people never put the day at the top of the pages in mercantile ledgers, as they saw that there was no justification for it, etc.

You shall make this entry in the debit (in the Ledger) in the following manner: Ginger in bulk, or so many packages, debit (dee dare-shall give) on November 8 per capital, for so many pieces, weighing so many pounds, which I on this day have in my store, or at home in my house, and which according to current prices are worth so many ducats and in total so many ducats, grossi, picioli, etc.; Page 2:

Then you shall cancel this entry on the debit side of the Journal-that is, at the left, as I have told you often, and then you shall enter it on the credit side under Capital, as I have shown you in entering the precious stones item in Chapter 15, that is:

After you have entered it in this way, you shall cancel the entry on the credit side of the Journalthat is, at the right-as I have shown you before, and you shall also write down at the margin the numbers of the respective pages of the Ledger one above the other-that is, three above and two below, as you have made the debit entry at Page 3 and the credit entry at Page 2, and you shall thereafter enter it in the alphabet or repertory under its respective letter, which may be $Z$ or $G$, for the reasons given in the preceding chapter.

## CHAPTER 17.

HOW TO KEEP ACCOUNTS WITH PUBLIC OFFICES, AND WHY. THE CAMERA DE L'IMPRESTI (MUNICIPAL LOAN BANK) IN VENICE, WHICH IS MANAGED BY SESTIERI (DISTRICTS).

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I shall not give you any more rules for the other items-that is, leather goods for coverings, tanned or raw, etc., for each of which you shall make entries in the Journal and Ledger, carefully writing down everything and checking off, etc., without forgetting anything, because the merchant must have a much better understanding of things than a butcher.

If you have accounts with the Camera de L'Impresti, or with other banks, as in Florence, or with the Monte de La Dote, in Genoa, as well as similar offices or bureaux with which you have business, see that you keep these accounts very clearly and obtain good written evidence as to debits and credits in the handwriting of the clerks in those institutions. This advice you will carefully follow, for reasons to be explained in chapter on documents and letters. Because in these offices they often change their clerks, and as each one of these clerks likes to keep the books in his own way, he is always blaming the previous clerks, saying that they did not keep the books in good order, and they are always trying to make you believe that their way is better than all the others, so that at times they mix up the accounts in the books of these offices in such way that they do not correspond with anything. Woe to you if you have anything to do with these people. Therefore, be very careful when dealing with them, and be observant at home and keep your head in the store. Maybe they mean well, nevertheless they may show ignorance. In this way you shall keep accounts with the Gabellari and Datiarii (revenue officers) as to the things that you might sell or buy, things that you grow, things that you plant, etc., as it is the custom in Venice where people are used to keeping an account through the office of the Messetaria (market master or exchange), some at $2 \%$, some at $1 \%$, some at $4 \%$. You should mention the book of the broker through whom the transaction was made, and also mention the special mark that the broker has in this book-that is, the book in which he makes a record of the market transaction at said office which they call "Chiamans" in Venice. For each broker has a book in the said office, or a place in some book in the said office, in which he has to make a record of all the transactions which he has with the citizens of the town or with outsiders. If the broker should not do that he would be fined and dismissed.

And justly the glorious republic of Venice punishes them and their clerks who should misbehave. I know of many who in the past years have been heavily punished, and right they are in having one officer whose only duty is to oversee all these officers and their books whether they are well kept or not, etc.

## CHAPTER 18.

HOW YOU SHOULD KEEP YOUR ACCOUNTS WITH THE OFFICE OF THE MESSETARIA IN VENICE. HOW TO MAKE ENTRIES PERTAINING THERETO IN THE MEMORANDUM BOOK, JOURNAL AND LEDGER, AND ABOUT LOANS.

When you want to do business with the said offices, you shall always charge to the Camera de L'Impresti (municipal loan bank) so many per cent. on all your funds or capital, naming the district where one resides. Likewise, for the amount of the daily sales for many are the sales made for you or for others, as those people know who are familiar with the Rialto. Be careful to put down the name of the party that buys and his place of business, etc. When you withdraw said funds, you shall always credit the said bank, day by day and district by district.

In doing business with the office of the Messetaria (exchange), you shall keep the account in this way: When you buy any merchandise through brokers, you shall credit the said office of the Messetari with the $2 \%$ or $3 \%$ or $4 \%$ of the whole amount, and shall charge it to that specific merchandise, for you are thus paying for it, etc. Therefore the buyer, when he makes his payments to the seller, should always retain that percentage, no matter whether the payments are made in cash or otherwise, as the said office does not concern itself about anything except the rate ( $\%$ ) to which it is entitled. The brokers make a report of the transaction, how and what for and with whom made, in order to have things clear in case any question should arise, which may happen.

A common proverb says: Who does nothing, makes no mistakes; who makes no mistakes learns nothing, etc.

If any question should arise and the parties wish to settle it, they would go and examine the records of the transaction made by the broker, to which records, according to the public decrees, as full faith is given as to a public notarial document, and according to these records very often the office of the Consuls of the merchants issues its judgment.

I say, then, when you buy anything, you must always know what is due to the Messetaria, and you withhold half of this from what you pay to the seller; that is, if the particular thing that you buy is subject to a $4 \%$ payment to that office, as per public decrees of the Republic, you withhold $2 \%$ of what you give to the seller. You give him that much less in order that he receives what is due him. You then will become a debtor for the whole amount which is due the said office, and you shall credit the said office with it in your Ledger when you keep an account with that office and charge it to the goods that you have bought, as we have said, because that office does not interest itself in the party who sells out, but in the party who buys. In accordance with this, the buyer will be allowed to take out of the official warehouses merchandise in proportion to the brokerage paid and according to their books kept at the shipping counter, whether it came by land or sea. Therefore, the merchants should keep a careful account with the said office so that they know how much merchandise they can take out. They are not allowed to take out more than they have bought unless they have paid the extra brokerage.

Of these purchases, I will give you here an example and how the transaction with the said office must be recorded in the Journal and in the Ledger. First, you shali express yourself in the memorandum book in the following manner:

I (or we), on this day above mentioned, have bought of Mr. Zuan Antonio, of Messina, so many boxes of Palermo sugar and so many loaves of the net weight-that is, without the boxes, wrappers, ropes and straw-so many pounds at so many ducats per hundred; I deduct for what is due to the Messetaria at the rate of so much per cent., so many ducats, grossi, picioli, etc. The broker was Mr. Zuan de Galardi; net value, so many ducats, grossi, piciohi, paid in cash. n․ santı. pefano nett. oe caffi.panelle. corde. e paqlic. §.tante.a oué.ranti el ce mótano oué.
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Whe. 1493.avitantiod tal miefe zc.
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The same should be entered in the Journal in the following manner :
Per Palermo sugar // A cash. Cash paid to Mr. Zuan Antonio of Messina for so many boxes and so many loaves, of the net weight-that is, without the boxes, wrappers, ropes and straw-so many pounds; at so many ducats per hundred, it amounts to so many ducats; I deduct what is due to the Messetaria at so much per cent., so many ducats, etc.; net residue, so many ducats, etc. The broker was Mr. Zuan de Gaiardi.

In the Ledger you shall make the entries as follows:
Palermo sugar debit (dee dare or shall give) cash. Cash paid to Mr. Zuan Antonio of Messina for so many boxes and so many loaves, weighing, net, so many pounds, at so many ducats per hundred, which amounts to-Page 1:
L............., S.............., G..............., P.................

And you shall credit cash with the same amount, and shall always credit the Messetaria with twice the amount which you withhold from the price paid to the seller-that is, for the commission due by the seller and by you.

Immediately after, you shall make another entry crediting the said office with the said sugar and charging the said merchandise. This will do for a purchase by cash. Now we shall consider one made partly in cash and partly on time.

First, in the memorandum book you shall say as follows: By cash and on time on such and such day, I have bought on the said date of Mr. Zuan Antonio of Messina so many loaves of Palermo sugar, weighing net so many pounds, at so many ducats per hundred, making a total of so many ducats. This is in part payment; for the rest I shall have time to pay until the whole month of August next, etc. The broker was Mr. Zuan Gaiardi.
D.............., G................, P................

You must understand that you do not need to have a written paper containing the terms of the transaction, for the broker shall record that in the said Office. This record is enough for you, but as a precaution, sometimes people require a contract.

You will make the entry in the Journal as follows: First you shall credit Mr. So-and-So for the total amount, and then charge him for the money that he has received.

## JESUS

1493
On such and such a day of such and such month, etc., per Palermo sugar // A Mr. Zuan Antonio, of Messina, for so many loaves, weighing net so many pounds at so many ducats per hundred, making a total of so many ducats; deducting for his share of the brokerage at so much per cent., so many ducats, leaving a net balance of so many ducats, of which now I have to pay so many, and as to the rest I have time until the end of next August. The broker was Mr. Zuan de Gaiardi; value $L$

Immediately after, credit the office of the Messetaria with the commission due to it: Per ditto // A Office of the Messetaria. For the amount above mentioned-that is, so many ducats at the rate of so much per cent. for my share and for the share of the debtor (seller), in all amounting to so many ducats, grossi, picioli: value:

For the cash payment, you shall charge him and credit cash in the following manner :
Per Mr. Zuan Antonio of Messina // A cash. By cash paid him for part payment of said sugar according to the terms of the transaction, so many ducats, as it appears from his receipt written in his own handwriting. Value :

L
S............., G... $\qquad$ P...

In the Ledger you shall write down as follows:
Palermo sugar debit (dee dare-shall give) on such and such a day of November, per Zuan Antonio of Messina, for so many loaves, weighing net so many pounds, etc., at so many ducats per hundred, making a total, net of the brokerage ; Page 4:


These items shall be entered in the credit column as follows:
Mr. Zuan Antonio of Messina, credit(dee havere-shall have), per Palermo sugar so many loaves, weighing net so many pounds, at so many ducats per hundred, amounting, net of the brokerage, so many ducats, of which I must now pay so many ducats, and for the rest I have time until the end of next August. Broker, Mr. Zuan de Gaiardi; Page 4; value:

For the cash payment you shall put in the debit column :
Mr. Zuan, debit (dee dare-shall give), on such and such a day, etc., per cash to him paid for part payment on sugar-I received from him according to onr agrecment-so many ducats, as it is shown by his own handwriting in his book; page 1:

The account of the Messetaria in the Ledger shall be as follows:
Office of the Messetaria, credit (dee havere-shall have), on such and such day, per Palermo sugar bought from Mr. Zuan Antonio, of Messina, for the amount of so many ducats, at so many ducats per hundred. Broker, Mr. Zuan de Gaiardi; Page, etc. . L.........., S............, G............ P.

## CHAPTER 19.

## HOW WE SHOULD MAKE THE ENTRIES IN OUR PRINCIPAL BOOKS OF THE PAYMENTS THAT WE HAVE TO MAKE EITHER BY DRAFT OR THROUGH THE BANK.

And as to the purchases, this should be sufficient to guide you, whether the payment of the purchase should be made all in cash or part in cash and part on time; or part in cash or part by bill of exchange or draft (ditta) ; or all through the bank; or part in cash and part through the bank; or part through the bank and part on time; or part through the bank and part by bill of exchange; or part through the bank, part in cash, part by bill of exchange and part by merchandise, etc.

For in all these ways it is customary to make purchases, and in each case you shall make entries, first in the Day Book, then in the Journal, then in the Ledger, taking as a guide the foregoing example.

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But when you make a payment part through the bank and part by bill of exchange, deliver first the bill of exchange and then settle through the bank, which is safer. Many observe this precaution on good grounds, whenever they have to make payments part in cash to settle this balance through the bank, etc. If you make payments part through the bank, part by trading something or part by a bill of exchange and part in cash, you shall charge the seller for all these things and you shall credit each of the said things, each thing in its own place.

Now that you know how to go ahead whenever you make purchases, you will also know what you have to do when you sell. In this ease, you shall charge the different buyers and shall credit the different goods that you sell and shall charge cash if you get money for the same, and you shall charge bills of exchange if you get a bill of exchange in payment, and credit the latter when the bank pays the exchange.

Therefore, referring again to the purchase, you shall credit the purchaser with all that he gives you in payment, etc.

This will be enough for your instruction on this subject.

## CHAPTER 20.

ENTRIES FOR THE WELL-KNOWN AND PECULIAR MERCANTILE CUSTOMS OF TRADING AND PARTNERSHIP, ETC. HOW THEY SHOULD BE ENTERED IN THE MERCANTILE BOOKS. FIRST: SIMPLE TRADINGS, THEN COMPLEX TRADINGS AND EXAMPLES OF ENTRIES FOR THEM IN THE MEMORANDUM BOOK, JOURNAL AND LEDGER.

Now we shall speak of how certain well-known and peculiar entries should be made which are of the highest importance in commerce, and which usually are kept separate from the others so that they can show their respective profits and losses (pro e danno). They cover tradings, partnerships, suggested business trips, trips on your own ventures, commissions from others, drafts (ditta) or bills of exchange (bancha descritta), actual trades, store accounts, etc. I will tell you briefly about these accounts, how you should make the entries in your books so that you don't get mixed up in your affairs.

First, we shall show how to enter a trade (barato). Trades are usually of three kinds, as we said in Section 9 of Treatise III, Pages 161 to 167 , where it is stated fully and you can refer to it.

I say, therefore, that no matter how you make a record of the trade in your books, you shall first enter it in the memorandum book, stating in detail all about it, its terms and conditions and whether it was made through a broker. After you have so described it, you then at the end shall put a money value on it; and you shall put down such price in accordance with the current value which the things that you have traded have; reckoning in any kind of money in the memorandum book. Afterwards the bookkeeper, when he transfers the entry to the Journal and Ledger, will reduce that money to the standard money that you have adopted.

This is done because, without entering the value of the things that you have traded, you could not, from your books and accounts, learn, except with great difficulty, what your profit or loss is. The merchandise must always be reduced to actual money value in order to take care of it (in the books).

You may keep a separate account of the goods received in trade, if you wish to do that, in order to know how much you make out of them separate from those of the same kind that you might already have at home, or separate from those that you might get after that, in order to know which was the best transaction. You also may keep only one account of all the goods-for instance, if you have already some ginger, and you get some more ginger through a trade. In this case you shall make the entries in the Journal as follows:

Per Ginger in bulk or in packages // A sugar, such and such kind, so many packages, weighing so many pounds. Received from a trade for sugar in this manner: I valued the sugar 24 ducats per hundred, of which I should receive one-third in cash, and I valued the ginger at so many ducats per hundred. The said sugar is in so many loaves weighing so many pounds, worth 20 ducats per hundred, and for the said ginger I received so many pounds of sugar and so many loaves, and their value is:
$\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{P}$
And if you do not know exactly how many loaves of sugar you have received for the said ginger, it does not matter, because you may correct the mistake in the following entry, whether the mistake was made plus or minus, or correct it through the cash entry. On the contrary, you know exactly the weight and money value, and you lose nothing in either by not knowing the number of loaves. It is not always possible to keep an account of all small details.

Now you will debit cash for whatever cash you received, and you shall credit sugar in the following manner :

Per Cash // A ditto. In the said trade I received cash from so and so for so many loaves of sugar weighing so many pounds; value:
L........., S..................... P.

You shall record in the Journal direct all these different items soon after the trade is made, and should take the name of the merchandise if you do not want to keep a separate account; but if you want to keep them in a separate account, you will write this way in the Journal:

Per ginger bellidi received by trade from so and so, etc. // A sugar, etc., stating everything as shown above. In the Ledger then they will have separate accounts.

This will be sufficient for you for all kinds of trades.
CHAPTER 21.
THE OTHER WELL-KNOWN ENTRY CALLED PARTNERSHIP. HOW IT SHOULD BE WRITTEN IN EACH BOOK IN THE PROPER MANNER.

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The other well-known entry is the buying of anything in partnership (compra or compagnie-may also mean joint venture but not corporation) with other people, such as silks, spices, cotton, dyes, or money exchanges, etc. These accounts must all be entered in all three books separately from your own. In the first, that is, the memorandum bools, after writing down the date at the top, you shall state in a simple way all the purchases with terms and conditions, referring to papers or other instruments that you might have made, stating for how long it was made and what were its objects, mentioning the employes and apprentices that you should keep, etc., and the share, and how much each of you puts in the business, whether in goods or cash, etc., who are the debtors and who are the creditors. You should credit the partners (compratori) for the amount which each of them contributes, and you shall debit cash with the same if you keep the account with your own. But it is better for the business if you keep this cash account separate from your private one when you are the one at the head of the business, in which case you should have a separate set of books in the same order and way we have shown previously. This will facilitate things for you. However, you might keep all these accounts in your own personal books opening new accounts which, as we have said, are referred to as well-known accounts because they are kept separate from all the others, and I will show here how to enter them in your Day Book and then in the Journal and Ledger-but if you keep separate books, I will not give you any further instruction, because what I have said so far will be sufficient for you-you shall do as follows: On this day we have made a contract with so and so, and so and so, jointly, to buy (facto compra) wool, etc., under terms and conditions, etc., as appears from such and such paper or such and such instrument, for so many years, etc. So and so put in as his share, so much in cash; the other put so many bales of French wool, weighing net so many pounds, etc., estimated at so many ducats per, etc. The third, so and so, put in so many credits, namely, one for so many ducats, etc.

Then, in the Journal, putting everything in its own place, you shall imagine that you have a partnership's cash (cassa de compagnia) and a partnership's capital (cavedale de compagnia); so that in each entry you make, you shall always name the accounts of the partnership so that you can distinguish them from your own entries. First, you make the cash entry, and then follow it systematically by the other entries :

Per Partnership cash // A such and such partner's account-so that if you have other accounts, you will not get confused-so and so put in on this day as his share according to our agreement as appears from the contract, etc.; value:


Then you shall mention the other things that they have contributed:
Per French wool // A partner's account, for so many bales weighing in total, net, so many pounds, as examined by all of us, at so many ducats per bushel, according to the terms of the contract we have made, etc., worth in total so many ducats ; value : $\mathrm{L} \ldots, \mathrm{S} . .$.

And so on for the other different items, and as to the due bills which have been put in the Company, you shall state this way:

Per Mr. So and So, Partnership's account // A so and so, according to our agreement, which so and so transferred to the Partnership as a good due bill of so many ducats: L

Now that I have given you a kind of introduction to these new entries, I won't go any further, as it would be a very tiresome thing to repeat all I have said.

And I will not say anything as to the way in which to make these entries in the Ledger, as I know it will be easy for you to know what should be entered as debit and what as credit from the Journal. You shall enter them accordingly as I have told you at Chapter 15, and shall cancel these entries in the Journal as I told you at Chapter 12, always writing in the margin just opposite them the number of the debit and credit pages of the Ledger, and as you enter them in the Ledger you shall also enter them in the index, as I have told you repeatedly before.

CHAPTER 22.
REGARDING THE ENTRIES OF EVERY KIND OF EXPENSE, AS FOR INSTANCE HOUSEHOLD EXPENSES, ORDINARY OR EXTRAORDINARY, MERCANTILE EXPENSES, WAGES OF CLERKS AND APPRENTICES. HOW THEY SHOULD BE ENTERED IN THE BOOKS.

Besides the entries so far mentioned, you shall open these accounts in your books: that is, mercantile expenses, ordinary household expenses, extraordinary expenses, and account for what is cashed in (entrata) and what is paid out (uscita) ; one for profits and loss (pro e danno-favor and damages) or (avanzi e desavanzi-increase and deficit), or (utile e danno-profit and damage) or (guadagno e perdita-gain and loss), which accounts are very necessary at any time so that the merchant can always know what is his capital and at the end when he figures up the closing (saldo), how his business is going.

I will show here clearly enough how these accounts should be kept in the books. The account named "small business expenses" is kept because we can not enter every little thing in the account of the merchandise that you sell or buy. For instance, it may happen that after a few days, for these goods that you sell or buy, you will have to pay the porter, the weigher, the packer, the shipper and the driver, and others, paying to this one one penny, to the other one two pennies, etc.; if you want to keep a separate account for each of these different transactions, it would be too long and too expensive. As the proverb says:

De minimis non curat Praetor (Officials do not bother with detalls). And it may be that you will have to employ those same people-drivers, porters, shippers and packers-for different things, as, for instance, you may need them for loading the several merchandises in a seaport, and you will employ them and will have to pay them for all these services at one time, and you could not charge the several kinds of merchandise, with its proportion of these expenses. Therefore you open this account which is called "small business expenses," which is always used in the debit as are all the other expenses. You enter in this account the salaries of your store empioyes, although some keep a separate account of the salaries that they pay so that they know how much they pay for salaries every year, etc. This should also always appear as a debit. If the account should be in credit, this would show that there is a mistake. Therefore you shall say as follows in the memorandum book:

On this day we have paid to drivers, shippers, packers, weighers, etc., who loaded and unloaded such and such goods, so many ducats, etc.;

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then in the Journal you shall say as follows:
Per small business expenses // A cash. Cash paid for boats, ropes, etc., for such and such goods in total, so many ducats; value:

In the Ledger, you shall state as follows:
Small business expenses (dee dare-shall give) debit per cash on this day, etc., value ; page, ete.
$\mathrm{L}_{1} . . . . . . .$. , S.............., G..............., P.................

We can not do without the account of ordinary household expenses. By these expenses we mean expenses for grains, wine, wood, oil, salt, meat, shoes, hats, stockings, cloths, tips, expenses for tailors, barbers, bakers, cleaners, etc., kitchen utensils, vases, glasses, casks, etc.

Many keep different accounts for all these different things, so that they can see at a glance how each account stands, and you may do so and open all these different accounts, and any accounts that you like, but I am talking to you about what the merchant can not do without. And you shall keep this account in the way I have told you to keep the small business expense account, and make each entry day by day as you have such expenses, as for grain, wine, wool, etc. Many open special accounts for these different things so that at the end of the year or at any time they may know how much they are paying out; but for the small accounts, as meat, fish, boat fares, etc., you shall set aside in a little bag one or two ducats and make small payments out of this amount. It will be impossible to keep an account of all these small things.

In the Journal you shall state so:
Per household expenses // A cash. Cash set aside in a little bag for small expenses, so many ducats, value
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If you wish, you can include in the household expenses the extraordinary expenses, as those that you make for amusements or that you lose in some game, or for things or money that you might lose, or that might be stolen or lost in a wreck or through fire, etc., for all are classified as extraordinary expenses. If you want to keep a separate account for them, you may do so, as many do, in order to know at the end of the year how much you have expended for extraordinary expenses, under which title you should include also gifts and presents that you might make to any one for any reason. Of these expenses, I will not speak any longer, because I am sure that you, keeping in mind what we have said so far, will know how to manage yourself. And leaving this subject, I will tell you of the way to open your store accounts in the Ledger and in the other books as if you wanted to conduct a store for your own account. I shall tell you that you must pay good attention, for it is a very nice thing for you to know.

## CHAPTER 23.

IN WHAT MANNER THE ACCOUNTS OF A STORE SHOULD BE KEPT. WHETHER THE STORE IS UNDER YOUR CARE OR UNDER THE CARE OF OTHER PEOPLE. HOW THE ACCOUNTS SHOULD BE ENTERED IN THE AUTHENTIC BOOKS OF THE OWNER SEPARATE FROM THOSE OF THE STORE ITSELF.

I say then that if you should have a store outside of your house (branch store) and not in the same building with your house, but which you have fully equipped, then for the sake of order you should keep the accounts in this way: You should charge it in your books with all the different things that you put into it, day by day, and should credit all the different merchandise that you put in it also each one by itself, and you must imagine that this store is just like a person who should be your debtor for all the things that you may give (dai) it or spend for it for any reason. And so on the contrary you shall credit it with all that you take out of it and receive from it (cavi e recevi) as if it were a debtor who would pay you gradually. Thus at any time that you so desire, you may see how the store is running-that is, at a profit or at a lossso you will know what you will have to do and how you will have to manage it. There are many who in their books charge everything to the manager of the store. This, however, can not be done properly without the consent of that person, because you can never enter in your books as a debtor any person without his knowing it, nor put him as a creditor under certain conditions without his consent. If you should do these things, it would not be right and your books would be considered wrong.

As to all the fixtures which you might put in said store necessary to the running of it according to the circumstances-if you had for instance a drug-store, you would have to furnish it with vases, boiling pots, copper utensils, with which to work-you shall charge your store with all this furniture. So all of these things you shall charge, and he who is at the head of the store shall make a proper inventory of all these things in his own handwriting or in the handwriting of somebody else, at his pleasure, so that everything should be clear. And this will be sufficient for a store whose management you may have turned over to somebody or to some of your employes. But if you want to run the store yourself, you shall do as I will tell you and it will be all right. Let us suppose that you buy and do all of your business through the said store and do not have to take care of any other business, then you shall keep the books as I have said before, whether you buy or sell. You shall credit all those that sell goods to you on time, if you buy on time, or credit cash if you buy for cash, and charge the store ; and if you should sell at retail, as when the sale should not amount to four or six ducats, and so on, then you shall keep all these moneys in a small drawer or box from which you shall take it after eight or ten days, and then you shall charge this amount to cash and shall credit the store; and you shall make this entry as follows:

Per various merchandise sold-for which you shall have kept an account-and so on. I shall not talk at length about this because
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I have given you sufficient explanation previously and you know how to go ahead by this time. For accounts are nothing else than the expression in writing of the arrangement of his affairs, which the merchant keeps in his mind, and if he follow this system always he will know all about his business and will know exactly whether his business goes well or not. Therefore the proverb: If you are in business and do not know all about it, your money will go like flies-That is, you will lose it. And according to the circumstances you can remedy what is to be remedied; for instance, if necessary, you might open other accounts. And this will be sufficient for you.

CHAPTER 24.
HOW YOU SHOULD KEEP IN THE JOURNAL AND LEDGER. THE ACCOUNTS WITH THE BANK. WHAT IS UNDERSTOOD BY THEM. BILLS OF EXCHANGE-WHETHER YOU DEAL WITH A BANK OR YOURSELF ARE A BANKER. RECEIPTS FOR DRAFTS-WHAT IS UNDERSTOOD BY THEM AND WHY THEY ARE MADE OUT IN DUPLICATE.

In respect to banks, which you can find nowadays in Venice, in Bruges, in Antwerp, Barcelona, and other places well known to the commercial world, you must keep your accounts with them with the greatest diligence.

You can generally establish connections with a bank. For instance, you may leave your money with the bank as a place of greater safety, or you may keep your money in the bank as a deposit in order to make therefrom your daily payments to Peter, John and Martin, for a bank draft is like a public notarial instrument, because they are controlled by the state.

If you put money in the bank, then you shall charge the bank or the owner or partners of the bank and shall credit your cash and make the entries in the Journal as follows:

For Bank of Lipamani // A cash. Cash deposited with so and so by me, or others, for my account, on this day counting gold and other money, etc., in all so many ducats; value:
$\qquad$
And you will have the banker give you some kind of a written record for your surety; if you make other deposits you shall do the same. In case you should withdraw money, the banker shall have you write a receipt; in this way, things will be kept always clear.

It is true that at times this kind of receipt is not given, because, as we said, the books of the bank are always public and authentic; but it is better to require this writing, because, as I have told you, things can't be too clear for the merchant.

If you want to keep this account in the name of the owners or partners of the bank, you may do so, as it is the same thing, because, if you open the account under the name of the bank, by the bank you mean the owners or the partners. If you keep it under the name of the owners, you shall say this way:

Per Mr. Girolimo Lipamani, banker, and associates-if there are many- // A cash-and here you write as above. In your books you shall always mention all agreements, terms, conditions that there might be; also instruments of writing and places where you keep them, whether file box, pouch or trunk, so that you may easily find them, as these papers should be diligently kept for an everlasting memorial of the transaction (ad perpetuam memoriam) on account of dangers.

As you may have several different business relations with the bankers for yourself, or for others, you must keep various accounts with them so that you won't mix one thing with another, and avoid confusion, and in your entries you shall say: On account of such and such thing, or on account of so and so, or on account of goods, or on account of cash deposited in your name or in the name of others, as we have said. You will know yourself how to make these entries. In the same way you will proceed in case others should turn money over to you for some account; you shall charge that account in your book-that is, you shall charge the bank, stating whether it was in part payment or in full, etc., and you shall credit the person that gave you the money. This will be all right.

When you should withdraw money from a bank either to pay somebody else as part payment or payment in full, or to make a remittance to parties in other countries, you shall do in this case just the opposite of what we just said-that is, if you withdraw money you shall charge your cash and credit the bank or owners of the bank for the amount withdrawn; and if you should give an order on the bank for somebody else, you shall charge this party and credit the bank or owners of the bank for that much, stating the reasons. You shall enter the cash item in your Journal as follows:

Per cash // A bank, or Mr. Girolimo Lipamani, for cash which on this day or on such and such


And if you should issue an order in favor of Mr. Martino, for instance, you shall say thus:
Per Martino on such and such a day // A ditto for ditto for cash, etc., for so many ducats, for which I gave an order, in part payment or in full payment, or for a loan, etc., on this day ; value:

Every time you transfer these entries from the Journal into the Ledger, you shall also record them in the index and cancel them, as I have shown you, adding more or less words according to the facts in the case.

You must do the same in case you want to send drafts elsewhere, as to London, Bruges, Rome, Lyons, etc. You shall mention in the letter the terms, conditions, etc., whether these drafts are at sight or at a certain date or at pleasure of the payor, as it is customary, mentioning also whether it is a first, second, third draft, etc., so that no misunderstanding can occur between you and your correspondent, mentioning also the kind of money in which you draw or transmit, their value, the commission, the costs and interest that might follow a protest-in a word, everything must be mentioned, why and how.

I have told you how you have to proceed in dealing with a hank. If on the contrary you are the banker you have to do in the opposite way (mutatis mutandis) ; when you pay you charge the man to whom you pay and credit cash. If one of your creditors, without withdrawing money, should issue a draft to somebody else, you shall say in the journal

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 uerra fare creditore de trtto. E retornādo faldara conteco. Efel tuo cömeffo foffe ile bäde
as follows: Per that special creditor of yours //A the man to whom the money was assigned. In this way you just make the transfer from one creditor to another and you still remain as debtor and act as a go-between, as witness or agent of the two parties. For ink, paper, rent, trouble and time you get a commission, which is always lawful, even though through a draft there is no risk of travel, or the risk when money should be transferred to third parties, etc., as in actual exchanges, of which we have spoken in its place. If you are a banker, whenever you close an account with your creditors always remember to get back all the papers, documents or other writings in your own handwriting that they might have. When you issue any such paper always mention it in your books so that when the time comes you will remember to ask for them and to destroy them so that nobody else should appear with these papers and ask money for the second time. You must always require good receipts as those do who are accustomed to this kind of business. For the custom is this: If you, for instance, come from Geneva to Venice with a draft on Messrs. Giovanni Frescobaldi \& Co., of Florence, which draft might be at sight or on a certain date or at your pleasure, and the amount were for a hundred ducats, that is, for as many ducats as you have paid to the drawer of the draft, then the said Messrs. Giovanni \& Co., when they honor the draft and give you the cash will require you to give two receipts written in your own handwriting, and if you should not know how to write, a third party or a notary public will make them out. He will not be satisfied with one because he has to send one to the banker at Geneva, who wrote him to pay the hundred ducats to you for his account just to show that he honored his request, and for this purpose he will send to the other banker a letter enclosing your receipt written in your handwriting. The other receipt he will keep for himself on file so that in balancing with the other banker, the banker could not deny the transaction, and if you should go to Geneva you could not complain of him or of Mr. Giovanni for if you should complain he would show you your receipt written by yourself and you would not play a beautiful part in it. All these precautions ought to be taken by necessity on account of the bad faith of the present times. Out of these transactions two entries ought to be made in the Ledger, one entry in the account with Mr. Giovanni, in which you shall charge the drawer of the draft, (letter de cambio) the other entry in the account of your correspondent at Geneva, crediting Mr. Giovanni with that hundred ducats paid through a draft. This is the method that the bankers of all the world keep so that their transaction may appear clear; therefore you will have to take some trouble on your part and try to enter everything in its own place with great care.

## CHAPTER 25.

## ANOTHER ACCOUNT WHICH IS USUALLY KEPT IN THE LEDGER, CALLED INCOME AND EXPENSES, FOR WHICH OFTEN A SEPARATE BOOK IS USED, AND WHY.


#### Abstract

There are some who, in their books, are accustomed to keep an account called Income and Expenses (Entrata e uscita), in which they enter extraordinary things, or any other thing that they deem proper ; others keep an account called extraordinary expenses and in it they record gifts, which they receive or give. They keep it as a credit and debit account, and then at the end of the year they ascertain the remainder (resto) which is either a profit or a loss and transfer it to capital as you will understand when we talk about the balance. But really the account we have called "household expenses" is sufficient for all this unless someone should like to keep a separate account for his own curiosity, but it would be of no great value because things should be arranged as briefly as possible. In other places it is customary to keep the income and expense account in a separate book which is balanced when they balance the authenticated books and all other affairs. This custom is not to be criticized but it requires more work.

\section*{CHAPTER 26.}

\section*{HOW ENTRIES SHOULD BE MADE IN MERCANTILE BOOKS RELATIVE TO TRIPS WHICH YOU CONDUCT YOURSELF OR YOU ENTRUST TO OTHER PEOPLE, AND THE TWO LEDGERS RESULTING THEREFROM.}


Trips are made usually in two ways, either personally or through somebody else; therefore two are the ways to keep their accounts and the book always ought to be in duplicate whether the trip is made by you personally or it is in charge of somebody else. One ledger is kept at home and the other one is taken along and kept on the trip. If you conduct the trip yourself, for the sake of order and system, you must take a new inventory also a small Ledger and small Journal among the things you take with you and follow the instruction above given. If you sell or buy or exchange, you must charge and credit according to the facts, persons, goods, cash, traveling capital, traveling profit and loss, etc. This is the best way, no matter what other people may say. You might keep an account with the mercantile house which furnishes you with the goods which you take on the trip. In this case you shall credit the said house in your little Ledger and charge the different goods one by one. In this way you would open your mercantile house accounts, capital account, etc., as in your main books, and coming back safe and sound you would return to the mercantile house either other goods in exchange for those that you took or money, and you would close the accounts with the entering in your big Ledger the respective profit or loss item. In this way your business will be clear. If, however, you entrust the trip to some other party, then you should charge this party with all the goods that you entrust with him, saying: Per trip entrusted to so and so, ete., and you should keep an account with him, as if he were one of your customers, for all goods and moneys, keeping separate accounts, etc., and he on his part will set up a little Ledger in which he makes you creditor for everything. When he comes back he will balance with you; and if your traveling salesman were in fetters (sentence remains unfinished in the original)

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 Orria eff alcuolte cbe nele tue ptite in quaderno, tubaueffi a mutar milefi? E nö,baueffe faldato.aloza ditto mifefic. Deui ponere in margine ariperto ditta pi ta dS cofie nata.cöe fo ortro fopza in cap. $5^{\circ}$ : Etutte laltre che la fcóreranno fe intèderanno al oitto mile? an a fēpre e buono vefaldare ognanno.maxime cbi cin cöp ${ }^{3}$.pcloel pucrbio vicí ragion fpefîa amifta löga. E cofí faraia tutte fímili.

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 calaltro lato del foglio in dare. overo bauere commo nel capirolo. $28^{\circ}$. Fo detto. E pa contíauando. Ealultimo.redullo in refto netto ouna fola parrita in dare. obaucr fecondo che lanafcera. EEquefti tali conti fi uogliano leuare con grandifima didigentia.

ANOTHER WELL-KNOWN ACCOUNT NAMED PROFIT AND LOSS, OR PROFIT AND DEFI. CIT. HOW IT SHOULD BE KEPT IN THE LEDGER AND WHY IT IS NOT KEPT IN THE JOURNAL AS THE OTHER ACCOUNTS.

After the other accounts, there must follow one which is named variously, according to different localities, Favor and Damage (Pro a Danno), or Profit and Damage (Utile a Danno), or Increase and Deficit (Avanzi e Desavanzi). Into this other accounts in the Ledger have their remainders, as we will show when we speak of the trial balance. You should not put these entries in the Journal, but only in the Ledger, as they orlginate from overs or shorts ln the debits and credits, and not from actual transactions. You shall open the account this way:

Profit and Loss debit (dee dare-shall give), and Profit and Loss credit (dee havere-shall have).
That is, if you had sustained a loss in a special line of merchandise and in this account in your Ledger would show less in the credit than the debit, then you will add the difference (saldo) to the credit so as to make it balance, and you shall enter as follows:

Credit (dee havere-shall have), per Profit and Loss, so much, which I enter here in order to balance on account of loss sustained-and so on, and you will mark the pags of the Profit and Loss account where you write down the entry. Then you go to the Profit and Loss account and in the debit column you shall enter as follows:

Profit and Loss debit (dee dare-shall give), on this day, to such and such loss sustained, so much-which has been entered in the credit of said merchandise account in order to balance it at page so and so. If the account of this special merchandise would show a profit instead of loss-that is, more in the credit than in the dehit-then you wlin proceed in the opposite way. The same you shall do one by one for all accounts with merchandise or different things, whether they show good or bad results, so that your Ledger always shows the accounts in balance-that is, as much in the debit as in the credit. This is the condition the Ledger will be in if it is correct, as 1 will explain to you when I am talking of the balance. In this way you will see at a glance whether you are gaining or iosing, and how much. And this account must then be transferred for its closing (saldo) into the capital account, which is always the last in all the ledgers and is consequently the receptacle of all other accounts, as you will understand.

## CHAPTER 28.

HOW FULL ACCOUNTS IN THE LEDGER SHOULD BE CARRIED FORWARD AND THE PLACE TO WHICH THEY MUST BE TRANSFERRED SO THAT NO CROOKEDNESS CAN BE PRACTICED IN THE LEDGER.

You should know that when an account has been flled out, either in the debit or in the credit, and you cannot make any more entries in the space reserved for such an account, you must at once carry this account forward to a page after all your other accounts, so that there is no space left in the Ledger between this transferred account and the last of the other accounts. Otherwise it would be considered a fraud. It must be carried forward in the manner which we have given above when writing about the balancing of profit and loss. In making the transfers, you should make entries on the debit and credit sides only, without making any entry in the Journal. Transfers are not made in the Journal; still, if you so desired, you might do that and it would be all right; but it is not necessary, because it would be that much more trouble without any necessity. All that need be done is to increase the smaller quantitythat is, if the account shows more in the debit than in the credit, you ought to add the difference to the credit. I will give you, now, an example of one of these transfers:

Let us suppose that Martino has had a long account with you of several transactions, so that his account should be transferred from ledger page 30. Suppose further that the last account of your book is at page 60 , and is at the top of said page, so that on the same page there is space enough to transfer the Martino account. Suppose that there is on debit side, $L$ L $80, S 15, G 15, P 24$; and the credit shows that he has given you, L 72, S 9, G 3, P 17 . Deducting the credit from the debit, there is a remainder (resta) of: L. 8, S 6, G $5, \mathrm{P} 7$. This is the amount that you should bring forward to the debit side of the new page, and on the old page you must add the same amount in the credit column to make it balance, saying as follows:

On such and such day, etc., per himself, I bring forward (porta avanti) this amount to the debit side as a remainder (resta), and the same amount I enter here per closing (saldo), that is: L 8, S 6, G 5, P 7 . see at page 60: $L_{\text {agonal }}$ line. After....................., $P$.............................. you will
And you shall cancel the account both on the debit and credit side with a diagonal' line. After that, you will go to page 60 and shall enter in the debit column the said remainder, always writing down at the top

Martino debit on such and such day per himself, as per remainder (resta) taken from the page of his old account and therein entered per closing (saldo), see page 30:

L $8, S 6, G 5, P 7$.
This is the way for you to proceed with all occounts that you should transfer: Place them, as I have told you, without leaving any space in between. The accounts should be opened in the order in which they originate in such place and at such time, so that nobody can speak evil of you.

## CHAPTER 29.

## HOW TO CHANGE THE YEAR IN THE LEDGER BETWEEN TWO SUCCESSIVE ENTRIES IN CASE THE BOOKS ARE NOT CLOSED EVERY YEAR.

It might be that you must change the year in your ledger accounts before you balance it. In this case, you should write the year in the margin before the first entry of the new year, as has been previously said at Chapter 15; all the following entries should be understood as having occurred during that year.

But it is always good to close the books each year, especially if you are in partnership with others. The proverb says: Frequent accounting makes for long friendship. Thus you will do in similar cases.

## CHAPTER 30.

## HOW AN ABSTRACT OR STATEMENT OF AN ACCOUNT SHOULD BE MADE TO A DEBTOR WHO MIGHT REQUEST IT, OR FOR YOUR EMPLOYER IN CASE YOU ARE MANAGER OR COMMISSIONER OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF HIS PROPERTY.

In addition, you must know how to make an abstract or a statement of an account if your debtor requests it. This is a favor that cannot be refused, especially if your debtor has had an account with you for years or months, etc. In this case you should go away back to the time when you began to have transactions with him, or back to the time from which he desires to have his statement, in case you have had previous settlements. And you should do thls willingly. You should copy all his account on a sheet of paper large enough to contain it all. If it should not be large enough, you will draw a balance at the end of the page and shall carry the latter, in debit or credit, forward to the other side of the sheet, as I told you at Chapter 28. And so on, untll the end of the account, and at the end you must reduce the whole account to the net remainder in a single entry in debit or credit, according to the facts. These statements must be made out very carefuliy.

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The following is the way you have to proceed in adjusting your own business with the business of your employer. But if you should act for others as an agent or commissioner, then you will make out a statement for your employer just as it appears in the ledger, crediting yourself from time to time with your commissions according to your agreements. Then at the end you shall charge yourself with the net remainder, or you shall credit yourself if you had to put in any money of your own. Your employer will then go through this statement, compare it with his own book, and if he finds it correct, he will like you better and trust you more. For this reason, of all the things that he gave or sent you, you should with your own handwriting keep an orderly account when you receive them. Observe this carefully.

On the contrary, if you are the employer, you may have your managers or commissioners make out these statements for you. But before these statements are delivered they ought to be compared carefully with each entry in the Ledger, Journal and Memorandum Book, or with any other paper relative thereto, so that no mistake could be made between the parties.

## CHAPTER 31.

HOW TO TAKE OUT ONE OR MORE ENTRIES WHICH BY MISTAKE YOU MIGHT HAVE ENTERED IN A DIFFERENT PLACE FROM THE RIGHT ONE, WHICH MAY HAPPEN THROUGH ABSENTMINDEDNESS.

The good bookkeeper should also know how to take out-or as they call it in Florence "stornare"an entry which by mistake you might have written down in the wrong place as, for instance, if you had entered it as a debit instead of a credit entry; or when you have to enter it in the account of Mr. Martino and you put it in the account of Mr. Giovanni.

For at times you cannot be so diligent that you are unable to make mistakes. The proverb says: He who does nothing, makes no mistakes: he who makes no mistakes, learns nothing.

And you shall correct this entry as follows: If you had placed this entry in the debit column while you should have put it in the credit column, in order to correct this, you shall make another entry opposite this one in the credit for the same amount. And you shall say thus: On such and such day for the amount which has been entered opposite here under the debit and should have been put in the credit, see page, etc., and you shall write down in the column of figures: $L$ which you wrote down by mistake in the other column. In front of these two entries you shall mark a cross or any other mark so that when you make out an abstract or statement of the account you should leave these entries out. After you have made this correction it is just as if you had written nothing in the debit column. You then make the entry in the credit column as it should have been and everything will be as it should have been.

## CHAPTER 32.

## HOW THE BALANCE OF THE LEDGER IS MADE AND HOW THE ACCOUNTS OF AN OLD LEDGER ARE TRANSFERRED TO A NEW ONE.

After all we have said you must know now how to carry forward the accounts from one Ledger to another if you want to have a new Ledger for the reason that the old one is all filled up or because another year begins, as is customary in the best known places, especially at Milan where the big merchants renew every year their Ledgers.

This operation, together with the operations of which we will speak, is called the balancing (bilancio) of the Ledger, and if you want to do this well you shall do it with great diligence and order. That is, first you shall get a helper as you could hardly do it alone. You give him the Journal for greater precaution and you shall keep the Ledger. Then you tell him, beginning with the first entry in the Journal, to call the numbers of the pages of your Ledger where that entry has been made, first in debit and then in credit. Accordingly in turn you shall obey him and shall always find the page in the Ledger that he calls and you shall ask him what kind of an entry it is, that is, for what and for whom, and you shall look at the pages to which he refers to see if you find that item and that account. If the amount is the same, call it out. If you find it there the same as in the journal, check it (lanzarala-mark it with a lance $\Lambda$ or $V$ ) or dot it (pontarala), or any proper mark over the lire mark, or in some other place, so that you can readily see it. You ask your helper to make a similar mark or check-as we are used to call it in some places-in the Journal at the same entry. Care must be taken that no entry will be dotted (pontata) either by you without him, or by him without you, as great mistakes might be made otherwise, for once the entry is dotted it means that it is correct. The same is done in making out statements of accounts for your debtors before you deliver them. They should have been compared with the Ledger and Journal, or with any other writing in which the entries of the transaction have been recorded, as we have said at Chapter 30.

After you have proceeded in this way through all the accounts of the Ledger and Journal and found that the two books correspond in debit and credit, it will mean that all the accounts are correct and the entrles entered correctly. Take care that your helper shall mark each entry in the Journal with two dots or little lances; in the ledger you mark down only one for each entry because you know that for each entry in the journal there are two made in the Ledger, therefore, the two dots or lances.

In making this balance it is good if you mark in the Journal two dots or lances under the lire, one under the other. This will mean that the entry is correst in debit and credit in the Ledger. Some use these marks in the Journal: They put a mark before the per for the deblt and after the lire for the credit. Any way both customs are good, however, one single mark in the Journal might be enough, that is, only the debit mark, because you can then mark yourself the credit side on the page of the Ledger where that entry is as this page is mentioned in the debit entry in your ledger. It will then not be necessary for your helper to call to you this credit page. So that by comparing only the debit side wlth him you could yourself check the credit side. But it would be more convenlent for you if you proceed with your helper in the manner above said.

After you have flnished checking off the Journal, if you find in the Ledger some account or entry which has not been checked off in debit or credit, this would indicate that there has been some mistake in the Ledger, that is, that that entry is superfluous whether in the deblt or credit, and you shall correct this error

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by making an entry for the same amount in the opposite side-that is, if the superfluous entry was in the debit, you make an entry on the credit side, or vice versa. And how you should proceed to correct the error I have told you in the preceding chapter. The same would be done in case your helper finds some entry which your ledger did not show whether in the debit or credit column, which also would indicate an error in the ledger and should be corrected in a different way. That is, you should make that entry or open that account in the debit or credit, mentioning the different dates, as the entry would be made later than it should have been. A good bookkeeper should always mention why such differences arise, so that the books are above suspicion; thus the notary public in his instruments need not mention what has been added or omitted. Thus the good bookkeeper must act so that the mercantile reputation be kept up.

But if the said entry should have been entered on only one side, debit or credit, then it would be sufficient for you to put it where it is missing, mentioning how it happened through mistake, etc. So you will go on through all your accounts and, if they agree, you know that your Ledger is right and well kept.

You must know that there may be found in the Ledger some entries which are not in the Journal and cannot be found in the Journal. These are the difference between the debit and credit placed there to close (per saldi) the different accounts when they are carried forward, as we have said in Chapter 28. Of these balances or remainders, you will find their correlative entries in the Ledger, whether in debit or credit, on the page indicated in these accounts. When you find each correlative entry in its proper place, you may conclude that your Ledger is in proper order.

What we have said so far about comparing the Ledger with the Journal, should be observed also in comparing the memorandum book or scrap book with the Journal, day by day, if you use the memorandum book, in the manner I spoke about at the beginning of this treatise. If you have other books, you should do the same. The last book to be compared should be the Ledger, the next to the last the Journal.

## CHAPTER 33.

HOW THE TRANSACTIONS WHICH MIGHT OCCUR WHILE YOU BALANCE YOUR BOOKS SHOULD BE RECORDED, AND HOW IN THE OLD BOOKS NO ENTRY SHOULD BE MADE OR CHANGED DURING THAT TIME, AND REASONS WHY.

After you have regularly done and observed all these things, see that no new entry is made in any book which comes before the Ledger-that is, in the memorandum book and Journal-because the equalizing or closing (el saldo) of all the books should be understood to take place on the same day. But if, while you are balancing you books, some transactions should occur, you shall enter them in the new books to which you intend to carry forward the old ones-that is, in the memorandum book or Journal, but not in the Ledger, until you have carried forward all the different accounts of the old Ledger. If you have not yet a new set of books, then you will record these transactions and their respective explanations on a separate sheet of paper until the books are ready. When the new books are ready, you enter them in these books which shall bear new marks-that is, if the old ones that you are balancing now were marked with a cross, then you should mark these new ones with the capital letter A.

CHAPTER 34.
HOW ALL THE ACCOUNTS OF THE OLD LEDGER SHOULD BE CLOSED AND WHY. ABOUT THE GRAND TOTALS OF THE DEBITS AND CREDITS, WHICH IS THE PREPARATION OF THE TRIAL BALANCE.

After you have done this carefully, you shall close your Ledger accounts in this way: You should commence first with cash account, then the different debtors, then the merchandise, and then your customers. Transfer the remainders in Ledger A, that is, in the new Ledger. You should not, as I have said above, transfer the remainders in the new Journal.

You shall add all the different entries in debit and in credit, always adding to the smaller side the difference, as I have told you above when explaining the carrying forward of the remainder. These two accounts are practically the same thing; the only difference is that in the first case the remainder was carried forward to another page of the same Ledger, while in this instance it is carried forward from one Ledger to another. While in the first instance you would mark down the new page of the same Ledger, in this case you mark down the page of the new Ledger; making the transfer from one ledger to another, any account should appear only once in each ledger. This is a peculiarity of the last entry of the accounts of the Ledgers.

In making the transfer, you should proceed as follows: Let us suppose that the account of Mr. Martino has a debit remainder (resto) in your "Cross" Ledger at page 60 of

L 12, S. 15, G 10. P. 26, and you want to transfer it to Ledger A at page 8 in debit; in the "Cross" Ledger you have to add to the credit column and you shall put the following at the end of all the other entries: On such and such day-putting down always the same day in which you do the balancing (bilancio) -per himself as posted to Ledger A to the debit, per remainder (resto), which amount I add here in order to close (saido)value; see page 8:

L 12, S 15, G 10, P 26.
And then you shall cancel the account in the debit and credit diagonally, as I have told you in talking about the bringing forward of the accounts. Then put down the total of all the entries, in the debit as well as in the credit, so that the eye can see at a glance that it is all even. You shall also write down at the new page in Ledger A, in the debit column, as follows: First you put down at the top of the page the year, and you put the day in front of the place wherc you make the entry for the reason mentioned in Chapter 15, then you say, Mr. Martino so and so, debit (dee dare-shall give) on such and such day

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per himself as per remainder (resto) carried from "Cross"' Ledger, which has been added in the credit column in order to close (saldo), see page 60, value: L 12, S 15, G 10, P 26.
Thus you will proceed with all the accounts of the Cross Ledger which you want to transfer to Ledger A: cash account, capital account, merchandise, personal property, real property, debtors, creditors, public officers, brokers, public weighmen, etc., with whom we have sometimes very long accounts. But as to those accounts which you should not care to transfer to Ledger A, as, for instance, your own personal accounts of which you are not obliged to give an account to another, as, for instance, small mercantile expenses, household expenses, income and expenses and all extraordinary expenses-rentals, pescioni, feudi or livelli, etc. All these accounts should be closed (saldore) in the Cross Ledger into the favor and damage account, or increase and deficit, or profit and damage account, as it is sometimes called. You shall enter them in the debit column, as it is rare that these expense accounts should show anything in the credit side. As I often have told you, add the difference to the column, either debit or credit, which shows a smaller total, saying: Per profit and loss in this account, see page, ete. By doing so, you shall have closed (saldore) all these different accounts in the profit and loss account through which then, by adding all the debit and all the credit entries, you will be able to know what is your gain or loss, for with this balance all entries are equalized; the things that had to be deducted were deducted, and the things that had to be added were added proportionately in their respective places. If this account shows more in the debit than in the credit, that means that you have lost that much in your business since you began. If the credit is more than the debit, that means that in the same period of time you have gained.

After you know by the closing (saldorai) of this account what your profit or loss is, then you shall close this account into the capital account in which, at the beginning of your management of your business, you entered the inventory of all your worldly goods. You shall close the account in this way: If the losses are in excess-from which state of affairs may God keep every one who really lives as a good Christianthen you have to add to the credit in the usual manner, saying: On such and such day, Per capital on account of losses in this account, see page so and so, value, etc. Then you shall cancel the account with a diagonal line in debit and credit, and put in the total amount of all the debit entries, as well as of the credit entries, which should be equal. And then in the capital account, you shall write in the debit column : Capital debit (dee dare-shall give) on such and such day, per profit and loss account on account of losses as marked down in the credit column of said account in order to close (per saldo), value, etc.:

If instead there should be a profit, which will happen when the profit and loss account would show more in the credit than in the debit, then you should add the difference to the debit side to make the equalization, referring to the capital account and respective page. You should credit the same amount to the capital account, making the entry on the credit side where all the other goods of yours have been entered, personal or real. Therefore, from the capital account, which always must be the last account in the entire Ledger, you may always learn what your fortune is, by adding together all the debits and all the credits, which you have transferred in Ledger A.

Then this capital account should be closed and carried forward with the other accounts to Ledger A, either in total or entry by entry. You can do either way, but it is customary to transfer only the total amount, so that the entire value of your inventory (inventario) is shown at a glance. Don't forget to number the pages, after which you will enter all the different accounts in the alphabet of Ledger A, each at its own place, as I have said at Chapter 5, so that you may find very easily the account you want. In this way the entire first Ledger, and with it the Journal and memorandum book, are closed and closed up.

In order that it may be clearer that the books were correct before the said closing, you shall summarize on a sheet of paper all the debit totals that appear in the Cross Ledger and place them at the left, then you shall write down all the credit totals at the right. Of all these debit totals you make one sum total which is called grand total (summa summarum), and likewise you shall make a sum total of all the credit totals, which is also called grand total (summa summarum). The first is the grand total of the debits, and the second is the grand total of the credits. Now, if these two grand totals are equal-that is, if one is just as much as the other-that is, if those of the debit and those of the credit are alike-then you shall conclude that your Ledger was very well kept and closed, for the reason that I gave you in Chapter 14. But if one of the grand totals is bigger than the other, that would indicate a mistake in your Ledger, which mistake you will have to look for diligently with the industry and the intelligence God gave you and with the help of what you have learned. This part of the work, as we said at the beginning, is highly necessary to the good merchant, for, if you are not a good bookkeeper in your business, you will go on groping like a blind man and may meet great losses.

Therefore, take good care and make all efforts to be a good bookkeeper, such as I have shown you fully in this sublime work how to become one. I have given you all the rules and indicated the places where everything can be found, in the table of contents which I have placed at the beginning of this work.

Of all the things thus far treated, as I promised you in Chapter 12, I will now give you a summary of the most essential things for your own recollection, which no doubt will be very useful to you.

And remember to pray God for me so that to His praise and glory I may always go on doing good.
CHAPTER 35.
HOW AND IN WHAT ORDER PAPERS SHOULD BE KEPT, SUCH AS MANUSCRIPTS, FAMILY LETTERS, POLICIES, PROCESSES, JUDGMENTS AND OTHER INSTRUMENTS OF WRITING AND THE RECORD BOOK OF IMPORTANT LETTERS.

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and, if they are lost, may cause great danger.
First, we shall talk of confidential letters which you may write to or receive from your customers. You should always keep these in a little desk until the end of the month. At the end of the month tie them together in a bunch and put them away and write on the outside of each the date of receipt and the date of reply, and do this month by month, then, at the end of the year, of all these papers make one big bundle and write on it the year, and put it away. Any time you need a letter, go to these bundles.

Keep in your desk pouches in which to place the letters that your friends may give you to be sent away with your own letters. If the letter should be sent to Rome, put it in the Rome pouch, and if to Florence, put it in the Florence pouch, etc. And then when you send your messenger, put these letters with yours and send them to your correspondent in that particular town. To be of service is always a good thing, and it is customary also to give a gratuity for that good service.

You should have several little compartments, or little bags, as many as there are places or cities in which you do business, as, for instance, Rome, Florence, Naples, Milan, Genoa, Lyon, London, Bruges, and on each little bag you shall write its proper name-that is, you will write on onc "Rome," on another "Florence," etc., and in these bags you shall put the letters that somebody might send you to be forwarded to those places.

When you have answered a letter and sent the answer away, you shall mention on the outside of the said letter the answer, by whom you sent it and the day, just as you did when you received the letter.

As to the day, you shall never forget to mark it in any of your transactions, whether small or large, and especially in writing letters in which these things must be mentioned, namely: the year, the day, the place, and your name. It is customary to put the name at the end of the right side in a corner. It is customary among merchants to write the year and the day and the place at the top at the beginning of the letter. But first, like a good Christian, you shall always remember to write down the glorious name of our Savior-that is, the name of Jesus, or in its place the sign of the Holy Cross, in whose name our transactions must always be made, and you shall do as follows: Cross 1494. On this 17th day of April in Venice.

And then go on with what you want to say-that is, "My very dear," etc. But the students and other people, like the monks or priests, etc., who are not in business, are used to writing the day and year at the end after writing the letter. The merchants are accustomed to put at the top as we have said. If you should do otherwise and not write the day, there will be confusion and you will be made fun of because we say the letter which does not bear the day was written during the night, and the letter which does not bear the place we say that it was written in the other world, not in this one; and hesides the fun made of you, there would he vexations, which is worse, as I have said.

After you have sent your answer away, you put your letter in its proper place; and what we have said of one letter will apply to all the other letters. It must be observed that when the letters you send away are of importance, you should first make a record of them in a book which is kept for this special purpose. In this book the letter should be copied, word for word, if it is of great importance-as, for instance, the letters of exchange, or letters of goods sent, etc., otherwise only a record of the substantial part should be made similarly as we do in the memorandum book, saying: On this day, etc., we have written to so and so, etc., and we send him the following things, etc., as per his letter of such and such date he requested or gave commission for, etc., which letter we have placed in such and such pouch.

After you have sealed the letter on the outside and addressed it, it is the custom of many to mark on the outside your special mark, so that they may know that it is correspondence of a merchant, because great attention is given to merchants, for they are the ones, as we said at the beginning of this treatise, who support our republics.

For this purpose, the Most Reverend Cardinals do likewise, by writing their name on the outside of their correspondence so that nobody could claim as an excuse that he did not know from whom it was. The correspondence of the Holy Father remains open so that its contents may be known, like bulls, privileges, etc., although for things which are more personal or confidential the seal representing the Fisherman (Pes-catore-St. Peter) is used to seal them.

All these letters, then, month by month, year by vear, you shall put together in a bundle and you will keep them in an orderly way in a chest, wardrobe or cupboard. As you receive them during the day, put them aside in the same order, so that if necessary you might find them more easily; and I won't talk any longer about this, as I know that you have understood it.

You shall keep in a more secret place, as private boxes and chests, all manuscripts of your debtors who have not paid you, as I said in Chapter 17. Likewise keep the receipts in a safe place for any emergency. But when you should pay others, have the other party write the receipt in a receipt book, as I told you at the beginning, so that a receipt cannot be easily lost or go astray.

You shall do the same as to important writing, as, for instance, memoranda of the brokers, or of merchants, or of weighmen, or relative to goods placed in or taken out of the custom house, either land or sea custom houses, and judgments or decrees of the consuls or of other public officials, or all kinds of notarial instruments written on parchments which ought to be kept in a place apart. The same should be said of the copies of instruments and papers of attorneys or counselors at law relative to lawsuits.

It is also wise to have a separate book for memoranda, which we call memoranda book, in which day by day you shall keep a record of the things that you might be afraid of forgetting and, if you forget them, may prove to be dangerous to you. Every day, the last thing in the evening, just before going to bed, you shall glance over this book to see whether everything which should have been done has been done, etc., and you shall cancel with your pen the things that have been done, and in this book you shall make a record of the things that you have lent to your neighbor or friend for one or two days, as, for instance, store vases, caldrons, or any other thing.
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These rules, and the other very useful rules of which I have spoken before, you shall follow and, according to the localities and times, you shall be more or less particular, adding or omitting as it seems best to you, because it is impossible to give rules for every little thing in the mercantile business, as we have already said. The proverb says that we need more bridges to make a merchant than a doctor of laws can make.

If you understand well all the things that I have spoken of so far, I am sure you with your intelligence will carry on your business well.

## CHAPTER 36.

## SUMMARY OF THE RULES AND WAYS FOR KEEPING A LEDGER.

All the creditors must appear in the Ledger at the right hand side, and all the debtors at the left.
All entries made in the ledger have to be double entries-that is, if you make one creditor, you must make some one debtor.

Each debit (shall give-dee dare) and credit (shall have-dee havere) entry must contain three things, namely: the day, the amount and the reason for the entry.

The last name in the entry of the debit (in the Ledger) must be the first name in the entry of the credit. On the same day that you make the debit entry, you should make the credit entry.

By a trial balance (bilancio) of the Ledger we mean a sheet of paper folded lengthwise in the middle, on which we write down all the creditors of the Ledger at the right side and the debtors at the left side. We see whether the total of the debits is equal to that of the credits, and if so, the Ledger is in order.

The trial balance of the Ledger should be equal--that is, the total of the credits-I do not say creditors -should be equal to the total of the debits-I do not say debtors. If they were not equal there would be a mistake in the Ledger.

The cash account should always be a debtor or equal. If it were different, there would be a mistake in the ledger.

You must not and cannot make any one debtor in your book without permission or consent of the person that has to appear as debtor ; if you should, that account would be considered false. Likewise you cannot add terms or conditions to a credit without permission and consent of the creditor. If you should, that statement would be untrue.

The values in the Ledger must be reckoned in one kind of money. In the explanation of the entries, you may name all sorts of money, either ducats, or lire, or Florence, or gold scudi, or anything else; but in writing the amount in the column, you should always use the same kind of money through-out-that is, the money that you reckon by at the beginning should be the same all through the Ledger.

The debit or credit entries of the cash account may be shortened, if you desire, by not giving the reason for the entry; you may simply say from so and so, for so and so, because the reason for the entry is stated in the opposite entry.

If a new account should be opened, you must use a new page and must not go back even if there was room enough to place the new account. You should not write backward, but always forward-that is, go forward as the days go, which never come back. If you do otherwise, the book would be untrue.

If you should make an entry in the Ledger by mistake which should not have been made, as it happens at times through absentmindedness, and if you wanted to correct it, you shall do as follows: Mark with a cross or with an " $H$ " that special entry, and then make an entry on the opposite side under the same account. That is, if the erroneous entry was on the credit side-say, for instance, for L 50 , S 10, D 6you make an entry in the debit side, saying: Debit (dee dare) L 50, S 10, D 6, for the opposite entry cross marked which is hereby corrected, because it was put in through a mistake and should not have been made. Then mark with a cross this new entry. This is all.

When the spaces given to any particular account are all filled so that no more entries can be made and you want to carry forward that account, do in this way: Figure out the remainder of the said ac-count-that is, whether it is debit or credit remainder. Now let us say that there is a credit remainder of L20,S4, D2. You should write on the opposite side, without mentioning any date, as follows: Debit L 28, S 4, D 2, per remainder (per resto) of this account carried forward in the credit at page so and so. And it is done. The said entry is to be marked in the margin so, namely: Ro, which means "resto" (remainder), but this does not mean that it is a true debit entry although it is on the debit side. It is rather the credit which is transferred through the debit side. Now you must turn the pages and keep on turning them until you find a new page where you shall credit that account by naming the account and making a new entry without putting down any day. And you shall say in the following manner: So and so is credit (dee havere) L 28, S 4, D 2, per remainder (per resto) of account transferred from page so and so, and you should mark this entry in the margin by Ro, which means "resto" remainder, and that is done.

In the same way, as I have shown you, you shall proceed if the account has a debit remainder-that is, what you enter on the credit side you should transfer to the debit side.

When the ledger is all filled up, or old, and you want to transfer it into a new one, you proceed in the following manner: First you must see whether your old book bears a mark on its cover-for instance, an A. In this case you must mark the new Ledger in which you want to transfer the old one by B, because the books of the merchants go by order, one after the other, according to the letters of the alphabet. Then you have to take the trial balance of the old book and see that it is equal. From the trial balance sheet you must copy in the new Ledger all the creditors and debtors all in order just as they appear in the trial balance sheet, but make a separate account for each amount;

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and leave to each account all the space that you think you may need. And in each debit account you shall say: Per so much as per debit remainder (resta a dare) in the old book marked A, at page so and so. And in each credit account you shall say: Per so much as per credit remainder (resta a havere) in the old book marked A, at page so and so. In this way you transfer the old Ledger into the new one. Now, in order to cancel the old book, you must cancel each account by making it balance, of which we have spoken-that is, if an account of the old Ledger shows a credit remainder as the trial balance would show you, you shall debit this account for the same amount, saying, so much remains in the credit of this account, carried forward in the credit in the new Ledger marked B, at page so and so. In this way you shall have closed the old Ledger and opened the new one for, as I have shown you how to do for a creditor, the same you shall do for a debtor, with this difference, that while you debit an account, which may show a credit remainder, you shall credit the account which may show a debit remainder. This is all.

## THINGS WHICH SHOULD BE ENTERED IN THE BOOKS OF THE MERCHANTS.

Of all the cash that you might have, if it is your own-that is, that you might have earned at different times in the past, or which might have been bequeathed to you by your dead relatives or given you as a gift from some Prince, you shall make yourself creditor (creditore te medesima), and make cash debitor. As to all jewelry or goods which might be your own-that is, that you may have got through business or that might have been left you through a will or given to you as a present, you must value them in cash and make as many accounts as there are things and make each debitor by saying: For so many, etc., of which I find myself possessed on this day, so many denari, posted credit entry at such and such page; and then you make creditor your account (tuo conto), that is yourself (medesimo), with the amount of each of these entries. But remember these entries should not be for less than ten ducats each, as small things of little value are not entered in the Ledger.

Of all the real property that you might own, as houses, lands, stores, you make the cash debitor and estimate their value at your discretion in cash, and you make creditor yourself or your personal account (tuo sopradette conto). Then you make debitor an account of that special property by giving the value, as I have said above, and make yourself creditor because, as I have told you, all entries must have three things: The date, the value in cash, and the reason.

If you should buy merchandise or anything else for cash, you should make a debtor of that special merchandise or thing and like creditor cash, and if you should say, I bought that merchandise for cash, but a bank will furnish the cash, or a friend of mine will do so, I will answer you that any way, you must make a debitor of that special merchandise; but where I told you to credit cash, you should, instead, credit that special bank, or that special friend who furnished the money.

If you should buy merchandise or anything else, partly for cash and partly on time, you shall make that special merchandise debitor, and make a creditor of the party from whom you bought it on time and under the conditions that you might have agreed upon; as, for instance, cne-third in cash and the rest in six months. After this you will have to make another entry-that is, make a debitor of the party from whom you bought it for the amount of the cash that you have given him for that one-third, and make creditor cash or the bank which might have paid that much for you.

If you should sell any merchandise or anything else, you should proceed as above with the exception that you should proceed in the opposite way-that is, where I told you that when you bought you should make the merchandise debitor, when you sell you will have to make your merchandise a creditor and charge the cash account if it is sold for cash, or charge the bank that might have promised the payment. And if you make a sale on time, you will have to charge the party to whom you sold it on time, and if you make the sale partly for cash and partly on time, you shall proceed as I have shown you in explaining about the buying.

If you should give merchandise in exchange, for instance, let us say I have sold 1,000 pounds of English wool in exchange for pepper-that is, for 2,000 pounds of pepper-I ask, how shall we make this entry in the Ledger? You shall do as follows: Estimate what the value of the pepper is, at your discretion, in cash. Now let us say that you estimated 12 ducats per hundred; the 2,000 pounds would be worth 240 ducats. Therefore, you shall make the wool a creditor with 240 ducats, for which amount you have sold it. This is the manner that you should follow in all the trade entries. If you have received 2,000 pounds of pepper valued at 240 ducats, you shall make the pepper a debitor and say: Said pepper debtor on this day, see page, etc., etc.

If you should loan cash to some of your friends, you shall charge the friend to whom you have given it and credit cash. If you should borrow cash from some friend, you will have to debit cash and credit your friend.

If you have received 8 or 10 or 20 ducats in order to insure a ship or a galley, or anything else, you should credit the account "ship insurance," and explain all about it-how, when and where, and how much per cent.; and shall charge the cash account.

If anybody should send you any goods with instructions to sell them or exchange them on commission, I say that you have to charge in the Ledger that special merchandise belonging to so and so with the freight, or duty, or for storage, and credit the cash account. You shall credit the cash for all cash that you have to pay on account of goods: for instance, cash paid for transportation or duty, or brokerage, etc., and charge the account of that special goods for that which you have paid in money.

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THINGS THAT SHOULD BE RECORDED IN A RECORD BOOK (RECORDANZE) OF THE MERCHANT.

All the house and store goods that you may find yourself possessed of-these should be put down in order-that is, all the things made of iron by itself, leaving space enough to make additions if necessary; also leaving room to mark in the margin the things that might be lost or sold or given as presents or spoiled. But I don't mean small things of little value.

Make a record of all the brass things separately, as I have said, and then a record of the tin things, and then the wooden things, and copper things, and then the silver things and gold things, always leaving enough space between each class so that you may add something if necessary, and to put down a memorandum of any object that might be missing.

All sureties or obligations or promises of payment that you might make for some friend, explaining clearly everything.

All goods or other things that might be left with you in custody, or that you might borrow from some friend, as well as all the things that other friends of yours might borrow from you.

All conditional transactions-that is, purchases and sales, as, for instance, a contract that you shall send me by the next ship coming from England, so many cantara of woll di li mistri, on condition that it is good; and when I receive it I will pay you so much per cantara or by the hundred, or otherwise ; I will send you in exchange so many cantara of cotton.

All houses, lands, stores or jewels that you might rent at so many ducats and so many lire per year. And when you collect the rent, then that money should be entered in the Ledger, as I have told you.

If you should lend some jewels, silver or gold vase to some friend, say, for instance, for eight or fifteen days, things like this should not be entered in the Ledger, but should be recorded in this record book, because in a few days, you will get them back. In the same way, if somebody should lend you something like the things mentioned, you should not make any entry in the Ledger, but put down a little memorandum in the record book, because in a short time you will have to give it back.

How Lire, Soldi, Denari and Picioli, ete., should be written down as abbreviations.
Lire; Soldi; Denari; Picioli; Libbre; Once; Danarpesi; Grani; Carati; Ducati; Florin larghi.
(See other side for their abbreviations.)

## HOW THE DEBIT (LEDGER) ENTRIES ARE MADE.

MCCCCLXXXXIII. Lodovico, son
of Piero Forestani, shall give on the 14th day of November, 1493, L 44, S 1, D 8, for cash loaned, posted cash shall have at page 2:

L 44, S 1, D 8
And on the 18th ditto, L 18, S 11, D 6, which we promised to pay for him to Martino, son of Piero Foraboschi at his pleasure, posted said shall have at page 2: L 18, S 11, D 6
Cash in hands of Simone, son of Alessio Bombeni, shall give on Nov. 14, 1493, for L 62, S 13, D 2, for Francesco, son of Antonio Cavaleanti, page 2:

L 62, S 13, D 6

Martino, son of Piero Foraboschi, shall give on Nov. 20, 1493, for L 18, S 11, D 6, taken by him in cash, posted Cash at page 2 :

L 18, S 11, D 6

Francesco, son of Antonio Cavalcanti, shall give, on Nov. 12, 1493, L 20, S 4, D 2, which he promised to pay to us at our pleasure for Lodovico, son of Pietro Forestani; page 2:

L 20, S 4, D 2

## HOW THE CREDIT (LEDGER) ENTRIES

 ARE MADE.MCCCCLXXXXIII. Lodovico, son of Piero Forestani, shall have, on Nov. 22, 1493, for L 20, S $4, \mathrm{D}$ 2, for part payment. And for him Francesco, son of Antonio Cavalcanti, promised to pay it to us at our pleasure ; posted shall give at page 2:

L 20, S 4, D 2

Cash in hands of Simone, son of Alessio Bombeni, shall have, on Nov. 14, 1493, for L 44, S 1, D 8, from Lodovico Pietro Forestani, L 44, S 1, D 8; and on Nov. 22, 1493, L 18, S 11, D 6, to Martino, son of Piero Forbaschi, page 2:

Martino, son of Piero Foraboschi, shall have on Nov. 18, 1493, for L 18, S 11, D 6, which we promised to pay him at his pleasure for Lodovico, son of Pietro Forestani; posted shall give entry at p. 8:

$$
\text { L 18, S 11, ! } 6
$$

Francesco, son of Antonio Cavalcanti, shall have on Nov. 14, 1493, for L 62, S 13, D 6, which he brought himself in eash; posted eash shall give at page 2:

L 62, § 13, D 6

294 $-\frac{4}{3} \frac{4}{0}$

295
295

196
of Pro ev danno // A doni uarij, per danno feguido, trattoin refto, per faldo di quello $\mathscr{O}_{2}$ $\longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow$

Pro ev danno // A spefe de uiuer di cafa, perplu Befe faite, come in effe appar, per faldo di quelle, $\mathscr{Y P}^{\circ}$ 154 Q20 P14———ual'L $\longrightarrow \longrightarrow \longrightarrow$ Fitti della polfeßtion da Moidn // a proer danno per fitio di quella per l'anno prefente, finira de Luio 1541,per faldo de quellt $\mathscr{Y}^{2} 45$ \& ual

297 Pe Pro $\sigma$ danno // a spefe diuerfe per piu $\beta$ Refe fatte $=\frac{4}{3} \frac{4}{3}$ l'anno prefente, come in effe appar, per faldo fuo $\mathscr{H}$ 399 - ual Z
298 Pro er danno // a spefe de falariadi in monte, per $=\frac{4}{4} \frac{4}{0}$ piufcefe fatte l'anno prefente, come in effe appar, perfaldo di quelle $\mathscr{H}^{2} 48$ \& $: 2$ 中心—ual $\mathcal{L}$

29970 Prode zeccha in monte // A Pro er danno, per uli $=\frac{4}{4} \frac{0}{4}$ lita feguida, come in quello appar, per faldo fuo, $\mathscr{\mathscr { F }}$ 1508 - 1 ———ualg

## 300

 $=\frac{4}{3} \frac{4}{3}$proet danno // a cauedal de mi a lutfe vallareffo, per yuilita feguida de l'anno 1540 , tratto infefto,


Di faldar la partida de li doni, poneth do il refto diquelli in pro \& danno. - 28 -

Di faldar le fefe di veftir in ditto pro \& danno,
158988914

Di faldar li fititi della poffesfion,im pro \& danno.
$4 \beta \cdot 08 — \Phi$
Di faldar le fpefe diuerfe, in ditto pro
\& danno.

$$
338198 — 9
$$

Di faldar le feefe de falariadi, in-ditto pro \& danno.

$$
48 \quad 178 \ldots 9
$$

Di faldar in pro de zeccha, in to ditto pro \& danno.


Di faldar poi it pro \& danno neltuo cauedal, per vlima conctufione.

$$
=908: 8: 0 \text { R }: 7
$$

Fine dilpprefente Giornale, tenuto per mi Aluife Va lare $\iint_{0}$, per conto d'ogni traffico, er negotio d me oc corfo, da di primo Marzo 1540 , fin adi ultimo Febraro del ditto millefimo, nelqual ordinatamente de giorno in giorno, bo fcritto di mia mano, nein effo piu intendo fcriuere, per bauer quello conclufo $\sigma$ faldato in

12 partide, lequal bo
-reportate nel libro noun fe gnato

## MANZONI'S JOURNAL REPRODUCED

On the opposite page is given an enlarged reproduction of the last page of Domenico Manzoni's journal. As stated before, the writer has not an original copy of Manzoni's book at hand, therefore only this page can be given which was enlarged from a reproduction appearing on page 121 of Brown's History of Accounting.

As we have seen in the historical chapter, Manzoni wrote forty years after Pacioli, but he was the first author to give illustrations of the journal and ledger, although in the text he practically copied Pacioli verbatim. Therefore, in Manzoni's book we have the first expressions in examples and illustrations of the writings of Pacioli.

The page here reproduced is the last page of the journal and contains the journal entries covering the closing of the profit and loss account (Pro et danno.)

We will note that the date is in the middle at the top of the page; that the name of the debtor account is separated from the name of the creditor account by two slanting lines, thus: //; that each entry is separated by a line in the explanation column only (not in the money column) ; that immediately to the left of each entry we find two figures, separated by a short horizontal line or dash; these are the pages of the ledger to which the debit and credit are posted, the top figure representing the debit and the lower one the credit. Immediately before these two figures, we find two slanting lines or dashes; they are the checking marks. We will see that Pietra uses a dot in this place and that Pacioli prefers a dot but mentions a check mark or any other mark. They are not the two slanting lines which are drawn through an entry when it has been posted. These two we find represented in the two little diagonal dashes at the beginning and end, as well as on the under and upper side, of the lines separating the journal entries. The writer believes from the descriptions he has read and illustrations he has seen, that these dashes are the beginning and end of the much described "diagonal lines" and illustrates his idea by the two lines he added to the reproduction in the last journal entry. The omission of these lines like that of the standing lines in the money column, is probably due to lack of printing facilities. You will recall that Pacioli mentions these lines to be made at the beginning of the entry and at the end of the entry, just before the lire sign.

The numbers from 294 to 300 in the left-hand margin, are the consecutive numbers of the jonrnal entries, which Manzoni alone and no other writer herein referred to mentions.

On the right we find the four signs of the various denominations, lire, soldi, denari, and picioli. A dash is provided wherever a cypher should appear in the money column.

The two lines of printing above the money in the money columns are merely directions which Manzoni as textwriter gave to his reader. They are not a part of the journal entry. You will note that he prints them in different type. The difference in coin between the uniform one used in bookkeeping and the one used locally is also apparent, as the local coin is given as a part of the explanation to the journal entry. The " $p$ " to the left of the journal entry and to the right of the figures in the margin stands for "per" (our by), and immedately after the slanting dashes "//" in front of the name of the credit account is used "A" (our to).

Elsewhere we have stated that except as to numbering the journal entries Manzoni mentioned nothing that Pacioli did not describe. While he copies whole chapters word for word, in some of them, however, he was clearer, more brief and more systematic than Pacioli. We give one of the chapters as an example.

## ABSTRACT FROM DOMENICO MANZONI'S BOOK

CAP. XIII.
Regole breuissime del giornal \& quaderno.
Nota che la Regola del Giornale \& Quaderno, in se contiene sei cose, cio e. Dare, Havere, Qualita, Quantita, Tempo \& Ordine.
Dare, significa douer dare, cio e il debitore, o uno o piu che siano.
Havere, uvol dir douer havere, cio e il creditore, o uno o piu che siano.
Qualita sono quelle cose che tu maneggi, \& siano di che sorte si vogliono.
Quantita, e il numero, peso over misure, o piccioli, o grandi che si siano.
Tempo, si e il giorno, ilmese \& lanno, sotto il quale tu fai la partida.
Ordine, e quello, che nella presente opera con facilita insegnamo.
Le due prime, sono affermative, e principali in ogi cosa.
La cosa debitrice, sempre va posta avanti a la creditrice.
Davanti a la cosa debitrice, vi si pone uno per a questo modo P.
Davanti a la cosa creditrice, vi si pone uno A cosi A.
Il P , in tal luogo significa la cosa debitrice.
E lo A in tal luogo significa la cosa creditrice.
Il giornale, si divide il debitore dal creditore, con due liniette a questo modo lequali dinotano, che de una partida dalgiornale, sempre se ne convien far due nel quaderno.
Il giorno, si nota nel giornal di sopra da la partida.
Et nel quaderno, si nota, dentro dalla partida.
Il numero de le carte del quaderno, nel giornale, si mette avanti la partida.
Et nel quaderno, il medesimo si mette dopo la partida.
Li nomi de le partide vive in l'alfabeto, vi si poneno a man destra.
Et quelli de le cose morte, si notano a man sinistra.
Per le cose vive, qui s intende ogni creaturi animata.
E per le morte, s intende robbe, over ogni altra cosa.

TRANSLATION OF THE ABOVE ABSTRACT FROM DOMENICO MANZONI'S BOOK.

## CHAPTER XIII.

Very Short Rules for the Journal and the Ledger.
(In verse form.)
You should note that the rules for the Journal and the Ledger contain six things, namely : Give, Have, Quality, Quantity, Time and Order.
Give (Debit), means as much as "shall give", that is, the debtor be it one or more.
Have (Credit), means as much as "shall have", this is, the creditor be it one or more. Quality, by this we understand the things you handle of whichever nature they may be. Quantity, by this we understand the number, the weight or the measure, be it big or little. Time, means the day, the month and the year in which the transaction is made.
Order, means that which we can easily learn from the present book.
The first two are most important and refer particularly to all things.
The things made debtor should be placed before the creditor.

In front of that which is made debtor is placed "Per', in this way " P ".
Before the creditor we place an "A" in this way "A".
The " $P$ " signifies that in this spot the things were made debtor.
And the " $A$ " signifies that in this spot the things were made creditor.
In the Journal one must divide the debtor from the creditor by means of two small lines in this way $/ /$, which denotes that from one entry in the Journal two entries should be made in the Ledger.
In the Journal, The day should be given above the entries.
In the Ledger, The same is carried into the body of the entry.
In the Journal, the number of the Ledger pages is placed in front of the entry.
And in the Ledger we place the same after the entry.
The name of the living account is written in the Index to the right.
And those of the dead things are written to the left.
With "living things" is understood every creature with a soul (ogni creatura animata).
And with "dead things" is understood merchandise and everything else.
In Chapter eleven Manzoni also gives eight rules for journalizing. The four principal things pertaining to buying, selling, receiving, paying, exchanging, loaning and gifts are

1. The one who gives.
2. The one who receives.
3. The thing which is given.
4. The thing which is received.

It should be noted that here are four conditions to each transaction. While Manzoni does not explain their use, as we will see later on, Stevin gives us the proper interpretation for this, somewhat as follows:

One transaction will always need a double-entry. If Peter pays $£ 100$ we must consider

1. The one who gives, i. e., Peter.
2. The one who receives, $i . e .$, proprietor.
3. The thing which is given, i. e., cash by Peter.
4. The thing which is received, i. e., cash from the proprietor.

Hence proprietor debit to Peter and cash debit to proprietor, which combined by eliminating the quantities of similar name and value, or by cancelling (as in algebra $a=b ; b=c$; hence $a=c$ ) makes cash debit to Peter.

Manzoni then follows with these eight rules:

1. Debit merchandise for purchase.
2. Credit merchandise for sales.
3. Debit cash for cash sales.
4. Credit cash for cash purchase.
5. Debit buyer for sales on credit.
6. Credit seller for purchase on credit.
7. Debit persons who promise to pay.
8. Credit persons to whom we promise to pay.

In order to give the reader some idea of the scope of Manzoni's work, we give here a translation of the Index to his book.

## PART I. JOURNAL.

## Chapter

1. Those things which the merchant needs and the system of keeping a Ledger and its Journal.
2. The inventory, what it is and how merchants make it up.
3. Form and example of inventory.
4. Last urging and good instruction for the merchant in connection with the inventory.
5. A certain book, which majority of people use and which is called Memorial, Strazze or Vachetta; what it is; how we must write it up and for whom.
6. Some special little books, which it is customary to use; what they are and how they are written up. (Separate day books for petty expenses, household expenses, salaries, repairs, rents, separate classes of merchandise.)
7. The manner in which in some places the books are authenticated by law.
8. The first book, which is called Journal; what it is and how it is started and kept. (Mentioning the five customary standing lines of a journal.)
9. The two terms which are used in the Journal and the Ledger, the one named "Cash," the other "Capital," and what they mean.
10. Two other terms which are used in the Journal and which are mixed quite often, and what they mean. ("Per" and "A"-Debits separated from Credits by //.)
11. The principles underlying the use and arrangement of the Ledger. (Author claims this is very difficult to understand; "Per" and "A" used to separate debit from credit, but does not say how to make debits and credits except that he gives in connection with the various methods of buying and selling, eight rules for Journal entry.)
12. The manner and system by which each entry in the Journal must be written under the proper terms. (Samples of Journal entries, with application of rules from Chapter 11.)
13. Short rules for the Journal and Ledger, and the six things each entry must contain.
14. Explanation of old abbreviations and what is meant by "Lire de grossi." The kind of money used by merchants in bookkeeping and which really does not exist. Common people use: Lire $=20$ soldi; 1 soldi=12 Picioli.

> (In Ducats.)

1 ducat $=24$ grossi.
1 grosso $=32$ Picioli in gold.
1 Piciolo in gold $=1-15 / 16$ Picioli in money by common people.

> (In Lire de grossi.)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
1 \text { lira }=10 \text { ducats. } & 1 \text { soldo }=12 \text { grossi. } \\
1 \text { lira }=20 \text { soldi. } & 1 \text { grosso }=32 \text { Picioli. }
\end{array}
$$

1 grosso in gold $=5$ grossi common money.
15. Explanation needed in order to understand the examples of journal and ledger entries.

## PART II. LEDGER.

1. The second and last principal mercantile book, called Ledger; what it is; how it is opened and kept.
2. The manner in which the old year is written in this book and about the kind of money used in posting. (Year and usually also the money is written in Roman figures; Arabic too easy to change: 0 to 6 or 9. Do not repeat date, but put a line. Leave no open spaces for others to fill in.)
3. The reason for having two entries in the Ledger for each single entry in the Journal.
4. The manner in which we use both terms for each entry in the Ledger. (" $A$ " on debit of Ledger, "Per" on credit of Ledger; unlike the Journal, where "A" denotes credit and "Per"' debit.)
5. The manner and system to be used in transferring entries from the Journal to the Ledger. (Crosses Journal entry off with one diagonal line, at the time he enters the Ledger page, but does not say where to put this line.)
6. The manner of marking entries in the Journal which have been posted to the Ledger.
7. The two numbers of the Ledger pages which are written in the margin of the Journal, when the entry is posted from the Journal to the Ledger, the one above the other and separated by a line.
8. Another number, which we write at the beginning of each entry, through which each entry can easily be located again. (Numbers each Journal entry consecutively.)
9. The manner in which the entries are carried to another place in the Ledger when one page is filled. (Cancel blank space on either side to lowest place of writing. Balance not entered in the Journal. Carries balance only, with an abbreviation which means "Carried forward.")
10. The manner and system which should be followed in the checking of the books in order to detect errors. (Gives Ledger to assistant and keeps Journal, thus reversing method of Pacioli. He does not use a dot but "another mark than that used first." (See chapter 6 above and two lines before each entry in the reproduction.)
11. The manner in which a correction in the Ledger is made when we have posted an entry to the wrong page in the Ledger. (Never cross the wrong entry out or erase it, for you cannot prove what was there, and hence it will be construed as deceit. If an entry is posted to debit that should be credit, put another on the credit to offset it, for same amount, then proceed correctly. Mark erroneous and corrective entries with an X or H (havere) ; some make correction in one entry by using double the amount.)
12. How to prepare an account for a debtor or a creditor when he asks for a statement of his account.

## PIETRA'S JOURNAL AND LEDGER REPRODUCED


#### Abstract

As stated in the historical chapter, in 1586, or nearly 100 years after Pacioli wrote, Don Angelo Pietra published a work on bookkeeping, which was fully illustrated with numerous examples. Undoubtedly Pietra had both Pacioli and Manzoni before him when writing his book, because he describes matters which Manzoni omitted but Pacioli gave, and also some which Manzoni mentioned and Pacioli did not. This will be explained fully elsewhere.

Pietra was a monk who endeavored to give a system to be used for monasteries, but which he claimed was expedient for those who do not trade, or in other words, for corporations not for profit, and for capitalists. The first page is a reproduction of the title page, in which the reader will find the author's name just above, and the date of publication just below, the picture.

The next page gives a chart of the various methods of buying and of selling, of each of which Pacioli says there are nine. Pietra sets them up here in a far more systematic manner, showing fifteen in all.

We show next the first four lines of the title page to the journal, which are the dedication of the journal: "In the Name of the most holy and undivided Trinity, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost." Also note the cross in the sixth line which is the sign used for the first journal and the first ledger when beginning a new business. Such journal and ledger as we have seen in Pacioli, is called the "cross journal" and the "cross ledger."


Next we give a page of the journal. From this page, we note:
(1) That the first page of the journal carries the opening of "In the Name of God."
(2) That thereafter comes the date in the middle of the page. The date is not again given until it is changed and then only the day of the month is given, omitting the year and the name of the month; " $a$ di detto," meaning "on the $\qquad$ day of the aforesaid month."
(3) That each journal entry is divided by a line, not clear across the page, but from page column to money column.
(4) That as in Manzoni's journal, no standing division lines in money columns are given (probably due to lack of printing facilities).
(5) That the money consideration of each entry is not only mentioned in the money column but also in the explanation of the journal entry.
(6) That the name of the debit account is given first and the credit last; that they are divided by two small slanting strokes followed by the preposition "a" like this: //a.
(7) That the name of the debit account is not preceded by " P "' or by "Per'" as Pacioli and Manzoni require.
(8) That the pages of the ledger to which the entries are transferred or posted are divided by a horizontal line or dash between the figures, the debit being always on top and the credit below.
(9) That each entry has a brief but full explanation of the transaction represented by the entry.
(10) That each entry is carefully checked with a dot (not a check mark as we use and Pacioli described or a dash as Manzoni showed) on the left of the ledger pages in the journal. These dots also appear in front of each ledger entry.
(11) That Pietra shows no combination journal entry or entries with more than one debit or credit.
(12) That he does not show the diagonal cancellation lines in the journal as an evidence of posting to the ledger.
(13) That he does not give any other value sign than the "Lire," omitting the soldi, denari, and picioli signs.
(14) That he very carefully provides a dash in the money column in the place of the cyphers.

The illustrations of the journal are followed by those of the ledger. The title page contains the name of the ledger, in the fifth line "Libro maestro" (master book or principal book). The ledger has the same dedication as the journal.

Folio one of Pietra's ledger is the equivalent of an opening balance account, giving the name of the old and new account, the page in the old ledger and the page in the new ledger, it being posted from the closing balance account in the old ledger and not from the journal. The assets are on the credit side and the liabilities on the debit side of the ledger. The account shows a deficit of L1706-10-3. The assets are divided in two: first, the accounts receivable and their total, then the merchandise and other specific accounts.

This page corresponds to the English form of a balance sheet. It is the proprietor's half of the opening inventory journal entry placed direct in the ledger instead of in the journal, and as such this represents a proprietor's account upon the theory that the proprietor is credited for furnishing or loaning to the personification of the asset accounts and charged with the negative assets or liabilities. As our modern capital account represents a net difference between assets and liabilities (leaving surplus out of consideration), it cannot be said that Pietra employed a modern capital account, although the result is the same.

Page 59 of this ledger also represents an account with the proprietor or owner, and is really a continuation of the account on page one. The first entry on the debit is the balance and deficit of L1706-10-3, properly transferred from page one without the aid of a journal entry. The following five entries are entries corrective of the net capital, because they refer to transactions of previous years and are of little importance for our study except that they show that the principle of surplus adjustments then existed.

The seventh entry on the debit, of L4-17 10, refers to the same ledger page as this selfsame account bears (namely, 59). We find, thereforc, the credit end of the entry on the credit side of this page. This entry does not come from the journal, but is merely a "cross'" or "wash" entry in the nature of a memorandum for the purpose of recording an omitted transaction. Note how carefully both entries are marked with a little circle (o) to set them off from the others, much the same as we use a cross ( $\mathbf{X}$ ) nowadays for the same purpose, and as Pacioli and Manzoni also mention.

The last entry on the debit side ( $\mathrm{L} 3744-0-3$ ) is made also without the aid of the journal. Its counterpart is on page 61 of the ledger. It represesents the net worth or capital invested at the end of the year, and balances on page 61 with the difference between assets and liabilities, and is merely a methodical closing entry in order that all accounts may be closed at the transfer of all open accounts to the new ledger.

On the credit side we find the first five entries to be surplus adjustment entries. The sixth one is the cross entry already explained, and the last one, L 5448-10-5, is the net profit balance transferred from ledger page 60 without the use of the journal. Here then we have an account named "Monastery," the proprietor for which these books are kept. It stands charged with a capital deficit, credited with the annual profits and closed with a debit balance representing present net worth, identical with our present day Capital account. The deficit in the opening entry, as would appear from the text, seems to be due to the low values given to the fixed assets in order to avoid heavier taxation by the church authorities. The account shows no definite ledger heading, althongh the first word on the left page "Monastero" (monastery) is the name of the proprietor and is not repeated in each entry. The same method Pacioli and Manzoni describe and therefore we have not approached closer to the definite ledger heading.

Page 60 represents what we call today an "Income and Expenses" account, sometimes misnamed but being similar to a "Profit or Loss"' account. It is not so named here. The debit side is called "Spesa Generale" (General Expenses),--the credit side "Entrata Generale" (General Income).

It should be remembered that these books were not kept for a mercantile establishment, which operates with the object of a profit in view, but only for a monastery, an eleemosynary corporation, an institution or corporation not for profit, hence it could not use the words profit or loss.

The balance on the debit of L5448-10-5 is the excess of general income over general expenses, and is transferred to page 59, which we have explained is the proprietor's account or equivalent to our present capital account.

Page 61 contains the last page of the ledger of Pietra's book. It is similar to page one, except that debits and credits are reversed. Here then we have the closing "Balance account," called "Esito," which means final or exit. It accurately represents our modern balance sheet, but is placed in the ledger as a permanent record and used as a medium to close all accounts in the ledger. It usually was and quite often now is the custom to start a new ledger each year, hence all accounts should be closed when the ledger is laid away. Pacioli nor Manzoni describe this account. They transfer the open balances of the asset and liability accounts direct to the new ledger.

You will note that the closing entry of L 3744-0-3 on the credit is taken from page 59, the monastery or capital account. You will also note that it is on the credit side of the account, and a total of the liabilities is drawn before the final balance. This is not done anywhere else in the ledger, showing that this account is different and represents two purposes: one, that of a final trial balance (after Profit and Loss accounts are closed) and thus becomes a statement of assets and liabilities; and, further, that net worth or capital is not considered a liability, but an item distinct from liabilities, for the purpose of closing the capital account in the ledger, and transferring it in the new ledger.

Page 21 of the ledger is given to show how carefully all blank spaces are cancelled by slanting lines; how accounts are kept in two kinds of money with the aid of a double column; that no reference is made to the pages in the journal from which the entries were posted, for the reason stated in the text that the date was a close enough reference; that the journal entries are not numbered, as was done by Manzoni. Pages given immediately before the amounts refer to the ledger page on which the other side of the doubleentry appears; note that on the debit the preposition "a" is used for our "to" and on the credit "per" for our "by;"' following Manzoni in this respect, but entirely opposed to Pacioli's teachings, opening and closing entries do not carry these prepositions; because they do not constitute true debits and credits as those transferred from the journal ; printers then, as now, make errors in figures, as the fourth figure from the bottom of the debit side should be 250 instead of 205, as per addition and the opening entry on page one ; the explanation in the journal is repeated in the ledger and more than one line is used for an entry if needed; a single line is drawn under the figures only and then the total put in; the word "somma" (total) is used in front of the figures instead of the double line we now rule under the total; no totals or lines are drawn when the aceount contains only one item; every entry is carefully checked with a dot in the left margin; the name of the account is engrossed at the beginning of the first line on the left and thus approaches the definite ledger heading of the present day ; the date belonging to each entry is not set out in a definite column, although the text mentions this; "dee dare" (should give or debit) and "dee havere" (should have or credit) is only stated once at the beginning of each account and not in every entry, as we would infer from Pacioli the custom was.

In order to give the reader a clear understanding of what is contained in Pietra's book and to show how much more polished, complete and advanced it is than the book of either Pacioli or Manzoni, and to indicate the many new features he introduces, we are giving here a brief description of each chapter in the nature of an index.

1. Day book or scrap book and similar books are necessary in order to get journal and ledger in good form.
2. Explains debit and credit as to "A" and "Per"-our "To" and "By," and the two little lines // which separate debits from credits.
3. Makes a distinction between bookkeeping for bankers, merchants, and capitalists.
4. Describes the three ledgers for these three methods.
5. Says some more about the ledger for capitalist and calls it the "Economic Ledger." Author uses this kind of ledger in his book of samples which he adapts to the business of a monastery.
6. The first part of the inventory covering immovable assets.
7. The second part of the inventory covering merchandise or goods for use in the house (not fixturesthey belong to movables).
8. The third part of the inventory of movable assets.
9. Gives tabulated detailed inventory of the movable assets of a monastery.
10. About qualifications of bookkeeper, namely, bright and of good character; good handwriting; also knowledge, ambition, and loyalty, and gives reasons for each of these.
11. Necessity for use of but one particular coin in the Ledger as the money used in Italy is of so many different varieties. Here is used 1 Scuto $=4$ Lire $=80$ Soldi in gold.
12. Describes the measures and weights used by the author.
13. Put a value on those things which are harvested and manufactured, but this should be lower than current prices so that the proceeds will not fall below this value in case of sale. What has been used should be charged to the proper department at the end of the year.
14. About the figures to be used. The Roman figures are difficult to change, but because fraudulent changes are more to be feared by bankers and merchants, he used the easier and more commonly used Arabic figures. Changes can be easily prevented by putting the money sign for lire directly in front and separating the divisions of the lire by little dashes, thus L 18-8-2-very much the same as done at present in England.
15. About the fiscal year. It can begin when one chooses, but must be twelve months long and must keep the same figures for the same year, namely, from June 1, 1586, to May 31st, 1586, not 1587.
16. Day books or memoranda books are necessary because the journal and ledger, due to their legal authentication, can be used only by the one bookkeeper appointed therefor and whose signature appears therein. Furthermore, transactions must be written down at the time and the place where they occur, and that may not be where the books are kept. Therefore, there are several memoranda books concurrently used, the first one of which is marked with a cross and those which follow with a letter in the order of the alphabet.
17. There should be at least three of these day books or memorials used-one for the cash receipts and disbursements and the deposits in the bank; one for the petty cash disbursements and one for all other entries from which the journal is written up, the latter to be in greater detail than the others.
Other day books can be kept with the sales and purchases, rents, taxes, etc. A book is needed for the library and information pertaining to contracts, leases, employes, due dates, etc. Receipts for money loaned should be kept in bound book form so that they may not be lost or stolen. Each department head should keep such a book with its transactions, such as the shoe maker, gardener, tailor, etc.
18. Describes a blotter or tickler which contains a sheet for each month, and a line for each day in which the duties of the storekeeper and butler are written, one for each day in the year.
19. Gives such a book in full detail.
20. About the journal and how to keep it. Journal is basis of the ledger and therefore it is essential that it is kept correctly.
21. The beginning of the journal, in the name of God. The value of prayer to success and the use of the little cross ( $\dagger$ ) as explained elsewhere.
22. Entries should be made in the journal from day to day and hour to hour, but some times this is not possible, especially in a monastery, where the memoranda or day books of the various departments are delivered only once a month.
23. About the manner and order in which the entries are made in the journal. A list of days on which entries are to be made is prepared by days from all the memoranda or day books, the cash entries always first.
24. Gives an example of this list.
25. Eight things always needed to make a proper journal entry: Debit-Credit-Time-Value-Quality -Quantity-Price-Arrangement;

The first two being the most important.
26. The greatest difficulty is to find what to debit and what to credit. All entries can be reduced to three principles.
27. List of above three principles:

1. (Receipt, sales, payment of an account due, borrowing.
(Disbursement, purchase, payment of a debt, loaning.
2. (Purchasing on credit or for cash.
(Selling on credit or for cash.
(Exchanging with money or without.
3. (Assignment of a debt to settle with a creditor, or vice versa, called drafts.
4. About the six other things needed for a proper journal entry.
5. How the journal is arranged. (See reproduction of journal page and explanatory notes appended; omits the consecutive numbering of Journal entry, as so many do, because the date is a sufficient guide to locate the entry in the journal.)
6. About the ledger and its formation.

Explains the opening account on page 1 of the ledger, and states it is the reverse of the closing account. Here he mentions debit as debito and credit as credito, although he usually states debit as "dee dare" and credit as "dee havere." Capital account is the key and the seal of the ledger.
31. Explains the use of the two ledger accounts-"Opening" and "Monastery." "Opening" is what the merchant calls "Capital" and practically he claims the same for "Monastery."
32. Explains what entries may be made in the capital account. Corrections of errors and profits or losses belonging to previous years. What we call surplus adjustments.
33. Gives a table of such capital account entries.
34. About the arrangement of accounts in the ledger, the capital account to be at the end of the book.
35. List of accounts in the ledger.
36. The ordinary index.
37. The special index.
38. Posting figures in the journal (one above the other).
39. How the entry is written in the ledger. ("A" on debit side of ledger, "Per" on credit side of ledger.)
40. Transfer to a new page is made by drawing the difference between the two sides and transferring this to the new page.
41. How to correct errors in the entries.
42. Entries which are written direct in the ledger without having been put in the journal.
43. About the income and expense account and the method of buying and selling. The author here states that merchants use this acconnt for their profits or losses.
44. The vouchering by a signature of the principal disbursements.
45. About the difference in bookkeeping for land rented and that cultivated for one's own account.
46. Three principal reasons why the income should be divided over the same accounts in which the expenses and salaries are separated, namely to each departmental sub-division.
47. When the best time is to enter the rentals from lands. In the fall when the harvest is made, as at the end of the fiscal year is a busy enough time.
48. About personal accounts and the carrying of accounts with two different money values.
49. About the cash account in the ledger, and its peculiar uses.
50. About the acquisition and alienation of lands, for which separate accounts are provided.
51. About the accounts with partners or joint ventures.
52. When and how to check with dots.
53. A short method of checking with dots.
54. How to take a trial balance, which also constitutes the balance sheet. Divides the same in four: 1 , expenses; 2, income; 3, assets; 4, liabilities.
55. How to find trial balance errors in a checked ledger.
56. How to refute a wrong opinion about the trial balance. Explains the fact that while debits and credits must equal, that such does not mean that the assets equal the liabilities.
57. How to compute the income and expense account. This he considers the most difficult, as some accounts will have three closing entries, -one for profit on sales; one for merchandise used by other departments of the business; and one for merchandise remaining on hand. Furthermore, measures and weights should also be brought in balance.
58. The manner in which the closing balance account is made up. Accounts are only ruled at the end of the year by a line under the figures or amounts ; then entering the total, which must be the same on both sides. If an account is closed during the year, only a line is drawn, but the total is put inside the column and not under the line.
59. About other methods of closing the ledger and their shortcomings. Here the author describes several methods used at that time of closing a ledger and prefers his own because it gives finally in one account the status of the capital, whereas the other methods do not do so.
60. How an account is rendered to the church authorities at the end of the fiscal year.

In the comparative index we have given the items which are discussed by all the four authors there mentioned. There are, however, a number of items which some of the authors use and others do not. From among these, the following are taken as the most important.

Pietra discusses the following in his book, but Pacioli and Manzoni do not:

## Chapter

3 distinction in bookkeeping for bankers, merchants, and capitalists.
4 describes three ledgers for these three businesses.
5 describes more in detail the ledger for capitalists-called "Economic Ledger."
7 inventory of merchandise in stores.
10 qualifications of bookkeepers.
12 description of measures and weights used in book.
13 put value on things harvested and used, and those not sold but used in other departments.
15 describes fiscal year-use same numerals, although calendar year changes.
17 separate daybooks for the following subjects: cash-bank-petty cash-library-contracts-leases-salaries-due dates-loans-and one for each department.
18 \& 19 daily tickler for bookkeeper and storekeeper's duties.
22 journal written up once a month in a monastery, because all daybooks are in use.
23 the order in which transfers from daybook to journal are made-a list of this prepared before-hand-cash entries always first.
25 \& 28 eight things always needed in any journal entry.
$26 \& 27$ rules for journalizing.
29 arrangement of journal with five standing lines, but omits numbers of journal entries.
31 divides capital into two accounts-opening capital at beginning of year-closing capital at end of year.
interim entries in capital account or surplus adjustments.
table of such capital entries.
capital account always at end of the ledger.
special index.
apparent transposition of "A" and "Per" in ledger from its use in journal.
list of entries which do not go through journal.
vouchering of disbursements.
book for lands rented and cultivated for own account.
income divided in same accounts as expenses.
when to enter rentals-in fall or end of fiscal year.
personal accounts and accounts with two different values of moneys.
acquisition and alienation of lands.
53 a short method of checking the ledger.
Pietra mentions the following in his book, as does Manzoni, but Pacioli does not, proving by this that Pietra had apparently available both Manzoni and Pacioli:
more than one memoriale
five standing or "down" lines in journal
definite rules for journal entries
six things always needed in each journal entry
about transposition of "A" and "Per" in ledger from its use in the journal
(Pietra does not explain definitely although his examples give it.)
numbering of journal entries.
Pietra's Chapter 33 explains all entries which may appear in the capital account and illustrates them with the following tabulation:

1. During the year
2. At the end of the year
3. During the year.
A. Profits.
a. omitted credits
a. collected
b. uncollected

Cash to capital
b. judgments obtained
a. collected
Cash to capital
b. uncollected
Debtor to capital
a. omitted debts
a. paid
b. to be paid
b. judgments lost
a. paid
b. to be paid
Capital to cash
Capital to creditor

Capital to cash
Capital to creditor
. balances of accounts
a. what is due
b. what is owed
Capital to creditor.
Creditor to capital
2. At the end of the year.
A. Extraordinary Accounts.
b. balance sheet adjustment
a. what is owed
several kinds and without
b. what is due
connection with the books
B. Ordinary Accounts.
a. excess in expenses

Capital to income
b. excess in income

Pietra's Chapter 42 explains about the many entries which are made in the ledger, without going through the journal, and classifies them as follows:

Refers to entries which we transfer from the old ledger into the new, partly daily, partly at the end of the year.

1. the introduction
2. the opening of capital account when it is transferred from the closing capital account and not from a new inventory.
3. balances transferred from one account to another.
4. contra entries to correct errors.
5. profit or loss due to inventory adjustments.
6. the balance of the income and expense account.
7. all closing entries at the end of the year.
8. the closing of the closing capital account.

# I N D R I Z Z O DEGLI ECONOMI. O SIA ORDINATISSIMA 

INSTRVTTIONEDA REGOLATAMENTE FORMARE QVALVNOVE SCRITTVRA INVNLIBRODOPPIO;

AGGIVNTOVI L'ESSEMPLAREDIVNLIBRO NOBILE, COL sVo GIORNALE, AD vso DELLA CONGREGATION CASSINESE,DELLORDINE DIS BENEDETTO.

CONDVETAVOLE,L'VNA DE'CAPITOLI, ET L'ALTRA delle cosepivdegne, abieno INTENDIMENTO DI CIASCVNO

Opera nuoua, non meno vilecheneceffaria, R Religiofi,che viuono delle proprie Rendite, \& ad ogni Padredi Famiglin, che fi diletti del Libro Doppio
Compofta da Dos Angelo Pietra Genouefe Monaco, \& indegnoteruo di Giefu Chrifo.


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Adi 3. Settembre.

Dall

# A L <br> NOMEDELLA SANTISSIMA ET INDIVIDVATRINITA. PADRE, FIGIIO, E SPIRITOSANTO. 

GIORNALE DEL LIBRO MAESTRO, SEGNATO DELMONASTERO, DELGLORIOSOPRECVRSOR
DICHRISTO.

SAN GIO. BATTISTA D'ORIANA,

$$
\text { DELLANNO. } 1580 .
$$

Cominciato adi primo Giugno. Scritto da me Don Gabriello da Parma,
Celleraro del detto Monaftero, diordine del molto Reuerendo Padre Don RomanoSenefe Abate, della Congregation Cafsinefe, dell'ordine del noftro Santifsimo Padre Benederto.

# A L N OMEDIDIO, 

Per Cartoleria / a Caffa.lire venti $\beta$ ro. feefe in queftolibrodoppio, col fuo Giorna

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P. Vigilantio Comafco Oblato,cuftode a Santi Martiri /a Caffalire cêtouenti, mandaregli da fpendere, per mano di Fabritio Gallo nofro fattore -_L

Limofine : a D. Mauro, lire otto, date d'ordine del Reuerendo P.Abate, ad altuni hebrei fatti chrittiani ____________12 —. 8 ———

Bérengario Serpentino camparo // a F. Manfueto, lire fette $\beta$ a o.da lui hauute
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S. Martiri/a F.Vigilantio, lire fette $\beta$ 15.6.per diece pale compre per lo frumento, come al fioo libro appare

## A L <br> N <br> O <br> ME <br> 

LIBROMAESTRO SEGNATO ${ }^{*}$ DEL MONASTERO, DEL GLORIOSO PRECVRSOR DICHRISTO, SAN GIO. BATTISTA D'ORIANA, DELLANNO. is 86.

Cominciato al primoGiugno. Scritto da me Don Cefario da Cremona, monaco del detto Monaftero; diordine del molto Reuerendo Padre Don Romano Senefe Abate, Edel P. D. Gabriello

Parmiggiano Decano, e Celleraro del detto
Monaftero,della Congregation Cafsinefe, dell'ordine del noftro Santiffimo Padre Benedetto.

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．Quintilio Purpurato－＿ 43
．Sigifmondo Tranquillo－
m．Torquato Rinieri－＿ 446 ．Enea Saiano－－－ 448
，Illiano dalla Scala－＿ 449
m．Wiberio de＇Mauri＿—＿ 449 ．Horatio Lauréato＿—＿－＿450
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| ．Forno drFarina ——— 327 | Farina Star245－－car． $4 \mathcal{L}$－． 90 |
| －Veltieria－ 332 | Rafcie pezze cinque－－car． $6 \pm$－ $3^{\circ}$ |
| ．Calzoleria－－ 333 | Cordoani，\＆fuole－＿car． 7 ¢．－80 |
| －Barbaria－－ 342 | Sapone Pefi 10. ————ar． 9 よ－ 30 |
| ．Cantına di uino in Camerone－364 | car．30．di unno per ufo－－car． $24 \mathcal{\text {－}}$－ 00 |
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Ee hauere adi 23. Luglio per Granaro del Monaflero，per lo prezzo conmune a 2．dı ftara 196 ．Frumenroha uutcglí queftanno，come

．Et più per Granaro difrumentata，hauuragli quefo anno，ragiona－

．Etadi26．Ottr．bre／per Cantina del Monaltero，per carra 18．uino， hauutogli come fopra，ragionato a f s．prezzo commune－car． 35 ユ2－－90－ －Et più／per Granaro diMiglio，hara 46 ，ragionaroa $\beta 30$ ． $\qquad$ car． $28 \mathfrak{Z}-.69$ Et più／per Granaro di Melega，ilara 48．idgionataa 820 ． $\qquad$ car． 29 よ－－ 48 $\square$ Et adi 1 I．Maggio，per F．Vigilantio，hauuti da Pıò 8．dí pratoaffitta roaz゚ 5．4．a Simione Guarnaccia－——acar． $40 \mathcal{L}-4^{1-12}$

$$
\text { .Somma } 2-7 \sigma_{3}-12
$$

$\qquad$

D



Ee hauere adis 3．Luglio／per Aquila Gradito aftitruale ex parte r．per
lo prezzo commune a $£$ 2，diftara 2 s ofrumento ne dee quefta raccol ta，per lo fitto del primo anno $\qquad$

$$
52 z-5=0
$$

－Et più／per Aquila detto，per ftara 40，di Vena，ne dee comefopra， ragionata a 820 ．prezzo commune car． 52 2－ 40 —————
．Etadi 26. Otrobre／per Aquila derto，per carra 18 ．uino ne dee co
me fopra，ragionato al prezzo commune ——＿car． $52 \mathscr{}$－ 90

## D

perde adi2 3．Luglio $/$ per Seuero Biondo mailaro，$\&$ affittuale，
 ．Et adi26．Ortobre／per Seuero detro per car 10 ．di uino ne dee co－
 Eetadi 12 ．Nouembre＇per Seuero detto，per lofitto in donarr．di que．
fo quarto anno finitoa SaMartino，da pagarci come al fuo cōto car． $52 \mathfrak{2 R}-400$ $\qquad$

## D <br> 



Ee hauere adi 27．Luglio／per Granaro difaus，hauuragls quefto anno in neftraparte，ragionata 2 $830 . \mathrm{prezzo}$ commune
－Et piu／per Granaro di Legumi，itara 8．hauutı，\＆ragionati utf－car． $29 \mathcal{Z}$－ 12
．Et adi 26．Otrobre，per Cantina del Monaßtero，per carra 12 ．uino ha


## DEe hauere adi r4．Aprite／per Caffa，uendineo a GE

 tile Malfimino，a 2 io．il pefo，per mano del P．D． Aimato di piüain le due partite cōtrolcriite－car． 21 Pefi－2． 12.6

IETR A SAI.DA dila dal Fondico uecchio, Maffarianoftra, dee dare adi uitimo Maggio/ a Valerio Leonimafaro, per carrezzi, \& oper e da hii hauute quef'anno,come al fuo libro faldatod accordo dißinca mente appare . Et piü / alPEurrata generale di quefianno, ciratogli per faldo di que no conton- -- _-_Car. $562-.31-.17=$


.8omma $x-763-12$

DEVVS DEDIT appreffola Citri, Maffaria noftra, dee dare ado uttimo Maggio, all'Encratagenerale di quef'anoo,tiratogli per faldo - car. 60 \%-630
l'Entrana geuerale di quelianno, tiratogliperfaldo car. 60 te- 590
$\qquad$


NATIO in Riua, Ronco noltro, dee dare adi ultimo
trata generale di queftanno, tiratogli per faldo-

S. LGNATIO in Riua, Ronco noltro, dee dare adi ultimo Maggio /all'En



AGAZINO di Lino,dee dare adipr. Giugno / alli'iatroi
to di quefto, per refto qui tirato dacar. 363 . libro Z car.
.Etadi 16.Giugno /a Badia,hauutogliqueftoanno,Atimato in circaal prezzo, \& quantirà - car.

```
                                    1 pefi 30-ม -205
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.Etadi 14.Aprile/ a Badia,per faldodi quefto contofpet
tante à effaCorte $\qquad$

$$
\text { fonma pefs } 17 \text { pefi } 0-2-150
$$

## 1586.

VONASTEROnoftro del gloriofo Precurfore，e degno Martire di ChriftoS．Gio：Battifta dOriana，quale noftro Sig．per fua diuina bö tà fi degni diffendere，e profperare，dee dare adi primo Giugno／al－ IIntroito generale diqueft＇anno，tiratogli da car．484．del libro $Z$. del l＇anno paffato－－＿－＿－＿－＿－＿－＿
1．Et adi 7．Ottobre／a Caffa，conti a Delio Pefcatore，in pagamento di quanto reftaua ad hauere，per pefce da lui ha uuto quefta quarefima paffata，come per fua lifta in filza

32 1 •－95－155－6－
．Etpiù／a Prifciana Volpe，prefto di panno，rafcia，e tele dalui hauu te gli anni paffati，come per fua lifta in filza appare diftintamēte，che perifcordonon fi（criffero－＿－car． Et più／a Caffa，contia m．Bartholomeo Calcinato，in uirtù di vna fen tenza della Ruota，per acqua godutagli da noftri di Badia gli anni paffati，della fuar rata parte，come appare ne gliatri dim．Andrea Lo douici notars diffulamente－＿car．
．Et piu／a Santo Squarcialupo，per tanti gli douemo pagarefra ot to me乞，in uittù di una fentenza della Ruo ta，vfcita ne gli atti del derto notaro，per riftoro di tempelta patital＇anno 1582．che effo era Affit

．Et adi ultimo Maggio／a F．Thomafo fpenditore，per faldo di fuo con to qui tiraro，per fuario occorfogli quefto anno－．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．
O ．Et piu／per Suario occorfo queftiano nel bilancio，come fi uede car． ．Et più／all＇Efito generale di queft＇anno，tiratogli per faldo di quefto


$$
\text { so } \mathcal{L}-47-8-
$$



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    |な 1706010-5-
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    |な 1706010-5-
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32 よ゚ - 135 ———
50 よー - 35 - 10 - $2-$
392 - 0 - 18 - 1 -
$-\frac{\text { car．} 61223744-0-3-}{\text { Somma } 25870-0-3-}$
： $\mathrm{D}^{-}$ 1586.

Ee hauereadi primo Ottobre／per Caffa，contone dal R．P．F．Pietro Martire da Turino diS．Domenico，p tâti habuti da un penitete，in

．Et più／per Riginaldo Campione，per la Bofchetra del Vallone，datta glil＇anno paffato da tagliare，e da pagarne a S．Michele profsimo paffaro，che non fifcriffe perifcordo－－．．．－．－car． －Et più／per Caffa，contone da Donino Turchinogià noftro Affittuale， in virtừ di una Sentềza di Ruọta，per lo danno da lui hautuo in arbo ri tagliati，e non piantati in quel tempo，come ne gli atti dim．Vincé zoRoffo notaro appare diftintamente－ car．
$\qquad$
47 ズー $-10 —$

Et più／per Naftagio Calandra，per tantine dee in uirtù di una fen－ tenza del Mag．Podefta．per l＇interreffe patito in uno paro di caual－

．Et adi ultimo Maggio／per D．Maurofecondo Celleraro，per faldo． del fuo conto，nel quale e feguito fuario quelto anno－＿car． 36 よ－2ロ 18－4－
11 O ．Etpiù／per Cōtroferittione della confimile partita per contro，pofta

12．．Etpiu／perla Spefagenerale，per faldo diquel conto qui tirato，per quantos＇c fpefomeno quefto anno dell＇Entrata hauuta－＿car． $6025448-10 —$－
Somma $25870-0-3=$

## 1586.

$\omega$
PESA generale diquelt'anno, finito adi ultimo Maggio, dee dare, per fal do degli infrafcritticonti, qui tirati, \& eliinti dalle lor o pertite, $<0$ me in efsi conti diftintamente appare cioè

.Spefo meno dell'Entrata di queft'anno, che fi tira al Monaft. nro-car. $59 \mathcal{L}$ 54.48-10———
.Somma $\mathscr{2} 27 \mathrm{iog}-10-3-$ re,come in elsi conti dillintamente appare cioè




## 1 L F I N.



CSITO gener ale di queit anno finiro adi ultimo Maggio, dec hauere per gli infrafcritri debiti del Monaflero,qui tirati dai conciloro, cioé

m. .Aquila Gradito affittuale, eonto di tempo
R.D.Clemente Aleni noflro Curata______________
.FabritioGallo noftro fattore
-Annibale Germano feruidore



1 L I NE.


## MAINARDI'S JOURNAL REPRODUCED

In 1632 there appeared in Bologna a work on bookkeeping, written by Matteo Mainardi. This book is of far later date than the ones heretofore mentioned, but as explained in the historical chapter it is remarkable in that it attempts to describe, besides the system for the merchants, one for the keeping of executors' and trustees' accounts. It follows Pietra and Manzoni closely in a good many instances.

The illustrations have small value for us except to indieate the little progress that was made in Italy with the shifting of the center of trade from Italy to Holland, as Simon Stevin's book hereinafter reproduced, which was published in 1604 in Holland, was far in advance of this of Mainardi's. We reproduce the title page of the second edition of this book, and a page whieh explains the purpose of the book as far as trustees' and executors' accounts are concerned. The two pages of the journal we give in order to show that each page is provided with the address to the Deity, that the dot is used for checking, and that we here find so-called combination journal entries, by which we mean entries in which are combined more than one credit or more than one debit in one entry. We do not, however, find the use of the word "sundries," as in Stevin's work and as we use it to this day. It will be noted that in such entries the debits are always named first and itemized before the credits are enumerated, and that the division between debits and credits is made with two horizontal lines or dashes, one below the last debit and one above the first credit. We also note the absence of the money signs, except the principal or the lire sign.

# ILCAMBIO 

 REALE
## P ER

# OGNI PIAZZA. Formalmente Ragguagliato 

D A
MATTEO MAINARDI,
Con diuerfi altri Quefiti vtili, curiofi, e neceffarij alla Mercatura

In quefta nuoua Imprefficione aggiontoui il modo, che hoggidi if pratica.


IN BOLOGNA, M. D. CC.
Per il Longhi. Con licenza de' Superiari.

## M. DC. XXXIV.



Laude, egloria della Santifsima , \& Indiuidua Trinità Padre, Figliuolo, e Spirito Santo; della Gloriofifsima Vergine Maria, delli Santi Apoftoli Pietro ,ePaolo,e delli SantiN.N.nofri Protettori, come ancora ditutta la Corte Celeftiale. Amen.

Quefto prefente Libro chiamato Giornale, di forma N . dicarte N . coperto di N . di carte num. N. efegnato N.è dirutiglio figliuolo del già Sig. Leonido Fongarelli pupillo, d'età d'anni N. \& erede (ò abinteftato, ò teftamentario ) del fudetto Sig Leonido, paffatoà miglior vitali 16 . Gennarodel prefente anno, fottola tutela di N. fopra del quale, per mano di N. farà notaro regolatamente, e formalmente, ogni qualità di beni ftabili, emobili, beftiami, debitori, ecreditoridel d. gia Sig. Leonido, eper confeguenza hora fpettante al medelimnSig. Rutiglio fuofigliuolo, \& erede, come fopra; e fufleguentemente tutte l'entrate, e fpefe, che fràl'anno leguiteranno in quefta eredità, lequali partite tutte farannoleuate da quefto Libro, e portate per mano del fudetto N.fopra vn altro Libro chiamato Libro Maeftro diforma, carta , coperta , efegno come quefto, dicarte num. N. à fuoi appartatil luoghi, conforme è lo file Mcrcantile, che però effo Pupillo(eper effoil Sig.N.fuo Commiffario Teftamentario) intende, chelifiadata piena, \& indubitata fede in giudicio, e fuori.

In fede diche \& c.

> 1o N. Commijfario Tef. ©r. affermo omantodifopra. ${ }^{16}$ N. Scriuano occerto, e giurr guante di fopra.


# Laus Deo, \& B. Virg. RofarijM. DC. XXXIII. 

 la pigione della cafa, e lir. noze quat. per corbe due, quar. due dorzo, bauuto piu! giorni fono dal Fattore, d' accordo.- 7 Acredito Luogo di Romanello.

L, 20.
$\mathcal{A}$ credito Orzo in grunaro cor. 2. quar. 2.
L. 9.

- 13 |c fpefed'Elemofine lir, centononanta,fol.otto,quat.difpenfate il Natale paffaro à diuerfl Luagbi Pif, 向 à poueri della noftra Parocbia, per lanima del Sig. Leonido, per noi dalli Mannimi, óc.
A credito alli Mannini, drc. albanco.

A Canape grezzo in Villa lir. cinquecentofeffantanoue, fol, quattordici quat, per va-1 luta di lib. duemillaottocentoquarant' otto, e meza di Canape , batruta dalli noftri lauoratori, della fua parte, apprezzata fenza pregiudicia lir. vinti il cento. A credito Luca Barbini per lib. $537 . e$ meza.
L. 107, 10. Acredito Damenica Mangunella per lib. 7 II.
L.142, 4, Acredito Liuio Carboni per lib. 837.e meza.
L. 167.10.

Acredito Angelo Sufa, per lib. 6ı 2.e meza.
L.122.10.

- 7
- A credito Micbele Landinelli lib. 150.
L. 30.
- 14
.7
1 Apefe di reparationi, e fabric be lir, centotrentunoue, fol. fei, den. otta quat. pagati per mandata queftu giorna-fudetta à M. N. noftra Capelletto, e fona, cine lir. cinquanta per la fua annua prouifione di coprire, e rivedere tutse le noftre cafe di Villa, e di Città, e il refto per fpefe, cbe dà conta bauere fatto in rifarcire le cafe di Filla, come de tutto ne appare lifta in filza di più fomma, per mandato datli Mannini, bec. al banco.
- 10 acredito li Manaini, óc. albanco. | Alla Poffefsone di Pondilir. fettantafette, fol. otto, den 8, quat. fi fanno buoni à M. |
| :--- |
| Sabadino Pazaglia di Mal'albergo, e fono per fei nauate diftramo, mandatocili\| | Sabadino Pazaglia di Mal'albergo, e fono per fei nauate di

mefi paffati, comprefoni le condotte, così d'accordo infieme. Alla Poffeffone di Bellolir. fettantafette, Sol.otto, den. atto quat. buoni al fudetto, come Jopra, per fei naunte difiramo da letto, come fopra detto. \{lla Poffeffione di Montorio lir. centacinque, fol, tredici per otto nauate di frama da $\mid$ letto mandatolit fudetto, come fopra.
Alla P. 0 ffeffione di Romanellalir. centocinque, fol, tredici quat, buoni al fudetto per alere otto nauate diftramo da letto bauute, come Jopra,
| Acredito Sabadino Pazaglia lir. 366. 3.4.


## NOTES ON YMPYN

We are reproducing herewith the title page of Ympyn's book, which we have taken from Kheil's book, where a thorough comparative study is made between Ympyn and Pacioli. Ympyn, as we have seen, was the first Dutch writer who practically translated Pacioli into Dutch, French and English, and from him continental Europe has derived its subsequent texts on bookkeeping. The original of this book was not available to the writer, but we have taken from Kheil's book the most important subject-matters which we review in the following lines:

Ympyn, as stated heretofore, copied Pacioli practically verbatim. We find, however, here and there a few deviations which we think it important to mention at this place.

Pacioli speaks about the two divisions of his book, one covering inventory and the other "disposition." He is somewhat vague in explaining this latter term. Ympyn says that "disposition" is "the establishment, systematizing and execution of the current and customary as well as the extraordinary affairs of a business.

Ympyn suggests that the index should be bound in parchment and placed either at the beginning or the end of the ledger, but in such a manner that it can be taken out if necessary. He uses the Italian terms "Per" and "A" untranslated. In front of corrective ledger entries he uses a cross and does not mention any other distinguishing marks. The term "cash", is personified to cashier instead of pocket book, as used by Pacioli. He enlarges on the terms "Cash" and "Capital" more than Pacioli does. For branch stores the sales are entered into a sales journal, and totaled once a week for transfer to the ledger. Ympyn is more extensive in his explanations than Pacioli about barrato or trade, also about the draft and its use. We should remember, however, that Pacioli describes these more fully in the parts of his book not covered by the subject of bookkeeping.

Ympyn recommends a separate book for household expenses, and a petty expense book for the small expenses of the business. The totals are transferred from these books to the journal once a month. He mentions a special cash book for special kinds of species or for foreign money which is handled by the firm, very much as some banks today use a separate account with bank notes of large denominations. He advocates the use of separate books for statistics, or memoranda, in the nature of diaries; and suggests a shipping book. As to accounts, he mentions interest, building rents, ground rents, expenses, household expenses, merchandise expenses, building repair, garden expenses, salaries, loans, expenses of childbirths and an account for marriage gifts.

Like Pacioli and Manzoni, Ympyn uses a profit and loss account, very much the same as we do today. He also draws off a balance to prove the correctness of the ledger. Ympyn, however, puts the balance at the end of the ledger as an account, although he does not explain it as such in his text; in this he does not follow Pacioli. He balances the profit and loss account to capital account without passing it through the journal.

Ympyn specifically mentions that merchandise must be inventoried at cost and he uses a merchandise inventory account, to which all accounts showing an inventory of merchandise or goods on hand are closed and then this account in turn is closed to the balance account. He does not journalize these entries. However, we find that he does journalize his profit and loss items, as does Manzoni, but which Pacioli does not do.

Assets in the balance account are put on the credit side and liabilities on the debit side. He uses no opening balance account in the new ledger, but evidently posts from the old balance account in the old ledger in reverse order to the new ledger, because the closing balance account in the old ledger gives the folios to which the items are posted in the new ledger. We have seen that Pacioli says that you can transfer the capital account either as a balance in one item, or itemized; the latter having the advantage of then representing a summary of the inventory, and each new ledger then starts with an inventory.

The journal, profit and loss, capital, and balance accounts illustrated by Ympyn are printed in Kheil's German review of Ympyn, but we regret that he did not reproduce them actually, as with the modern printing much of the form and arrangement is lost.

Ympyn permits no erasures. He wishes a line drawn through the wrong amount or words the same as Pacioli does, in order to be able to prove of what the error consisted. He insists that explanations to the journal entries must be so clear that anybody can understand the transactions they record; that books kept in the Italian manner as described by him, with a journal and a ledger, "make everything as clear as daylight and will prevent swindles and defalcations, as occur now so frequently and almost daily."

He adds the freight to the merchandise and posts it to the merchandise account. He deprecates trading on long credit, and announces it as bad because "the wolf does not eat any days and the due date comes nearer not only by day but as well by night.'"

The two diagonal lines of which Pacioli speaks, are used in the journal when the posting is finished and in the ledger when the account is closed or transferred to the new ledger. Capital account Ymypn credits with the assets and debits with the liabilities, which agrees with the idea of the personifying of accounts and results in a net credit in this account, which net credit is the same as we use in the capital account to this day. Ympyn uses no ledger headings and shows but one column in the journal. He uses Roman figures in all money columns, both ledger and journal.

# STEVIN'S JOURNAL AND LEDGER REPRODUCED 

The following pages, Nos. 119 to 136, represent reproductions of the journal and ledger and other interesting forms as given in the book of Simon Stevin, which appeared in the Dutch language in Amsterdam in 1604, was rewritten in The Hague in 1607, republished in Latin in 1608, and republished by Stevin's son Hendrick in 1650. As we have seen, Stevin was a tutor and adviser of Prince Maurits of Orange, then Governor of some of the Dutch provinces. Stevin first taught the Prince bookkeeping and then induced him to install a double-entry system of bookkeeping throughout his domains and government establishments.

Stevin apologizes for the use of terms in foreign languages, such as debit, credit, debitor, creditor, balance, journal, finance, etc., but says they are necessary because if he used Dutch terms the bookkeepers would not understand what he was writing about, and as bookkeepers only are supposed to profit by the regulations promulgated and ordered by Maurits, the Prince of Orange, for the double-entry municipal accounting system, he insists that he must use the foreign terms.

The objection of the Prince that government clerks would not understand Italian or double-entry bookkeeping, he overcomes by advising that he could hire and should hire clerks who did know it, for they undoubtedly would be better men.

The objections to the necessity of double-entry bookkeeping for municipalities and governments he reasons away by stating that a merchant has some direct personal supervision over his bookkeepers and cashiers, but the government must direct them through other persons. As this is not as safe as the merchant's personal supervision, it follows that if a merchant needs double-entry bookkeeping and finds it profitable, the government needs it that much more.

Stevin does not give rules for the making of journal entries, but he explains a difficulty which the Prince evidently met, when the latter asks: "If Peter pays me $\$ 100$, there are two debits and two credits: I am his debtor and my cash is also a debtor; he is my creditor and his casll is also a creditor. Which two of these four must I select for my books?" Stevin answers: "Take always my creditor and my debtor because Peter keeps books with his creditor and his debtor."

Stevin urges upon the Prince that governmental treasurers invariably become rich, and when they die leave such a muddled state of affairs and records that there is nothing left but to forgive and forget, but that such is not the case with bookkeepers and cashiers of mercantile establishments; they invariably die poor. A merchant, he says, knows what his bookkeeper or his cashier or treasurer should have, but this is not so with a Prince, who has to take the cashier's word for it.

The Prince then asks if bookkeeping ever had been worthy of such consideration that books were published on it. Stevin replied that numerous writers had taken up the subject, and that while doubtless the double-entry system was originated in olden times, yet in Italy where it is said to have been executed first, it is considered an art of which no other is so honorable and worthy.

The Prince (apparently floored by Stevin's lucid arguments) thereupon agrees to take up the study with the view of installing double-entry bookkeeping in the governmental departments as soon as Stevin and he were through with their studies of algebra.

Stevin has a firm place in the heart of the writer, because he mentions in his book that one of his forbears was a treasurer of the city of Flissingen, thus supplying the missing data for the genealogy of his family.

Comparison of the journal and the ledger with the reproductions of the Italian writers heretofore given, will at once show that in printing as well as in arrangement the Dutch were far superior to the Italian. A comparison with Pietra and Mainardi will make this very plain. The examples must be pronounced as being excellent for their time. The journal entries are differently grouped than has been done by any previous writers, very much more systematic, and in many instances only totals from other records are used.

It will be noted that all religious terms at the top of pages or at the beginning of books, customarily used in the Italian method, have been omitted. The slightest reference to the Deity is absent in these books, due to the fight for religious freedom which then waged in Holland. Stevin was a great supporter of the Protestant party, so much so that Brown relates that when in 1645 a proposal was made to erect a

- statue at Bruges to his memory, a Catholic agitation was aroused in the House of Representatives to defeat the project. Even a clerical editor expunged his name from a Dutch dictionary of biography, where it had appeared in earlier editions. However that may be, the writer having been born in Holland and there having kept numerous sets of books, can vouch that twenty years ago the majority of books which came under his supervision were opened and closed in the name of the Diety.

Stevin's omission of the use of religions terms was followed in England, whereas Europe to this day -follows Ympyn and others, which is corroborating evidence that Stevin through Dafforne has influenced English and American bookkeeping more than has Mellis, who followed Pacioli in the use of religious terms.

Through a peculiar coincidence the use of the terms "pepper" and "ginger" appear as frequently in his illustrations and examples, as they do in those of the Italian and other previous writers.

Stevin personifies the impersonal or economic accounts when he states that cash account is an account with the cashier and follows this idea throughout his work in connection with other accounts. He men-
tions the three methods of buying and selling theretofore described by the Italians, namely, on account, for cash, and in trade, and the combinations that can be made with these three. Like his predecessors, he states that in the beginning of every book two entries are necessary, which should cover merchandise, and cash on hand, as also the debts owing and accounts owning, and like Pacioli and Ympyn he explains fully that sometimes a business can be started on credit but he doubts the advisability.

Steviu is the first to use the system of controlling accounts, and as shown in the first page herewith reproduced, in the second line after the table, the same name for these accounts is retained today. He uses the word "contrerole," which comes from the French "controler," which in turn comes from the two Latin words "contra" and "rotulus" (our roll) and "rota" (our wheel). The definition of the word "control" is "to check by a duplicate register" or "verify an account." The total of his controlling account was obtained from the detailed monthly reports from the sub-treasurers or cashiers of the various places and departments, and were posted to these controlling accounts through the medium of journal entries. From these accounts tables were compiled showing the delinquencies for each year of each sub-treasury or of each place. He describes that an endless variety of these tables may be made in order to show the true status of the various operations at various places. He also states that if no tables are desired, then there should be a separate account for each column in these tables, and especially for each year. The table reproduced shows how particular and careful he was on this subject.

The ledger shows both the page of the journal and the page upon which the other part of the doubleentry appears in the ledger. This is one of the first writers who enters the journal pages in the ledger. The pages of the journal are, however, put in the margin, on the left of the date in the ledger and not directly to the left of the amount, as we are accustomed to do at the present time. The explanations in the ledger will appear to you to be shorter and clearer and more to the point as to relevancy than was customary in the Italian method. It should also be noted that the term "per" is used on both sides of the ledger. Stevin says that many bookkeepers use "a" on the debit side where he uses "per." He suggests that his method is more reasonable, as can be learned by translating the entry in an ordinary sentence; thus, which is better language? "Peter is debit to me 'for' ('per') pepper sold to him," or "Peter is debtor to me 'to' ('a') pepper sold to him." He then states that it is not a matter of importance, that his readers can do as they like, but he wishes them to follow the better sentence.

In the journal he does not use the expression "per'' before the debitor, nor "a" before the creditor, nor does he divide them with the two slanting lines // as do Pacioli, Manzoni, Pietra and Ympyn. Stevin simply used "debit per" between the names of the debtor and creditor thus coming closer to our present form of journal entry.

It is difficult to state what the two diagonal lines (//) between the debits and credits mean.
In the chapter entitled "Discursion in Theory" there has been set forth in detail Stevin"s theory of a double entry with two debits and two credits, thus carrying the transaction through the proprietor's account but eliminating the same by algebraic formula.

The late Joseph Hardcastle, C.P.A., of New York, in 1903, in his "Accounts of Executors and Trustees," chapter on "The Personalistic Theory," very plainly sets forth the same idea elucidated by Stevin. He even goes so far as to state that Pacioli (he spells it with an "i"') and Manzoni used the slanting lines between debits and credits to indicate the omission of the word "proprietor" twice.

Stevin explains that Roman figures in the ledger are not needed because they are never used in the journal, which is a book of more importance, and if they are not put in the book of more importance why should we put them in the book of less importance? He explains (as does Pacioli) that the ledger is not important because if the ledger is lost it can be written up entirely from the journal, whereas the reverse is not true, because the detail which the journal contains is lacking in the ledger. He further states that in the Italian books Roman figures are not used in the day book.

It will be noticed that each page of the ledger has a consecutive number (not as we number by giving two pages, the debit and the credit, one and the same number). Stevin explains that this is better because then all your debit pages will be uneven and the credit pages will be even numbers, which will aid in checking if an error is made in putting the little dividing line between figures representing the pages of the debit and the credit in the journal, as is customary in the Italian method. The fact that but one column is used in the journal, makes this little dividing line between the figures of the debit postings and those of the credit postings very important. Stevin further explains in this connection that it is still more confusing with a combination journal entry, where there are a number of debits and but one credit, or vice versa, when the word "sundries" is used. This because the debit of a combination journal entry comes first, and thereafter a number of credits, yet the total of the journal entry (which is the amount for the debit entry), stands at the last and therefore the debit is posted last, as will be seen from the illustration reproduced.

Stevin is the first of the writers mentioned in this book to use combination journal entries with the word "sundries." We have seen that Mainardi has combination journal entries or journal entries with more than one debit and more than one credit, but he does not use the word "sundries."

In the ledger it will be noted that the first entries, or the opening balances on some of the accounts, bear the date of " 0 January." The use of the cipher at the beginning of the year, he says is absolutely necessary, because the books are opened on neither December 31st nor January 1st. It is a period in between these two. He explains this with the illustration that the first rung is not the beginning of the ladder.

The date in the ledger is repeated before each entry, instead of following the Italian method of using the words " a di detto," which mean "the. $\qquad$ day of the above month," because he says the date to which "ditto" refers may be several pages back and therefore hard to read at first sight.

Unlike Pacioli, Pietra and Ympyn, Stevin uses definite headings for his ledger accounts, and is the first one to use the terms "debit" and "credit" instead of "dee dare" and "dee havere." He puts the year on top of the page, and he balances his ledger accounts by making a sub-total. Closing entries do not go through the journal. Profit and loss account is written up at the end of the year, and also at the close of particular transactions, and while Stevin does not give a trial balance, in his descriptions he speaks very particularly of the same, and describes how to prepare it. While in his illustration he credits a legacy to the profit and loss account, in his text he admonishes the reader to put it to the capital account, giving his specific reasons for it. Cash entries are journalized in daily totals. He maintains a separate cash book in which the receipts are put on the debit and the disbursements on the credit, the same as they would be found in the ledger if it were a ledger account. He also explains that this looks as if it were double work but it is not, as it is not the bookkeeper's work to keep a cash book, but the cashier's. He further argues that because the bookkeeper is sometimes also the cashier, that fact should not alter the rule. He has a separate cash book for petty expenses, in which to enter small items which are posted to the ledger only once a month; in order to lessen the number of entries.

About the reconcilement of differences between bookkeepers, cashiers, treasurers and others, he claims that these variations are due to the different closing periods of accounts and reports by the various officials, and requires that they be preserved by writing their full detail in the journal and making a reference of the same on the ledger account affected. Stevin says that as the head bookkeepers through these reconcilements would discover entries which belonged to a period previous to the date of their discovery and their entry in the journal, that the current date on which the entry is made in the journal should be used in that book, but that in the explanation the original date should be used (we now use "as of date" so and so). But he warns his readers that when posting these entries to the ledger, the original date and not the journal entry date should be used. He advises that trial balances be taken in February, May, August, and November, which are customary mercantile due dates, which in turn will lead to a settlement of many accounts and will make this work easy and light. Furthermore, it will give data and statistics upon which the merchants can base their buying, selling, and credit budgets for the future. $/ \mathrm{He}$ advises that the Italian method of bookkeeping is so adapted to expansion that whereas before but one bookkeeper could be - employed, under the double-entry system any number of bookkeepers can be used, for, if the work becomes too much for one man the system should be revised so as to provide for controlling accounts. This means to post in totals only, so that one sub-division can be given to a bookkeeper to be controlled by one head bookkeeper, who deals in totals only.

As to the cash book, it is used because it obviates the making of numerous journal entries every day, thus shortening the work greatly. He fully illustrates this, and transfers the totals of the cash book to the ledger by journal entries, preferably monthly.

Stevin provides a double column in the ledger account for merchandise. In one of these he puts the weights and measures, and insists that they be balanced also. He says that in his illustrations he made them come out even, although he admits that that very seldom happens. The result, however, would be the same, for the balance to be carried to the new ledger or to be used in "the statement of affairs" would be based upon the weight, and whatever is over or short, as far as weight and measure is concerned, would automatically adjust itself in the profit and loss.

He objects to the name of "memorial" as used in the Latin countries for the day book, stating that " memorial" is a book of memoranda (things to be remembered), whereas the day book is used to write in roughly the daily transactions preparatory to journalizing them. This he calls a blotter. He draws a - line between each journal entry from one side of the book to the other side of the book, through all the standing lines and columns. He explains that this line is necessary, because some entries cover several pages. (How we accountants wish some bookkeepers would make journal entries with explanations pages long!)

Stevin says it is customary to ascertain once a year what the profit or the loss of the business has been. This is what he calls "balancing" or "making a statement of balance" or "ascertaining of capital." For this purpose, he advises to "add together cash and merchandise on hand and actual accounts receivable,

- deduct therefrom the accounts payable; the difference is net capital provided the accounts receivable are all good. The difference between the net capital of last year and this year is the profit or loss for the year." According to Stevin, the making of a statement of affairs was not done concurrently with the closing of the books, the latter being done only when a new ledger is opened or where the merchant retires from business or dies.

To prove his profit and loss arrived at through the making of a statement of affairs as above explained, he makes up a profit and loss account, which he calls "proof statement." Therefore, his profit or loss is ascertaincd first from the balance sheet, and in order to prove whether that is correct, he builds a profit and loss account. How few modern bookkeepers and young accountants understand this principle today!

It will be seen from the reproduction of his financial statement and profit and loss account, that the profit and loss statement is just as it would appear in the ledger account if these entries were really posted to a ledger account as we do today. The balance sheet therefore represents an unposted journal entry, whereas the profit and loss account shows the result of a posted journal entry. In this Stevin is of course inconsistent.

Stevin makes the statement of affairs a mathematical problem rather than the result of debits and credits. He adds and subtracts, but does not reason where "proprietorship begins and ends," as he does with all other journal entries. Hence, the entries comprising the closing of the ledger and the profit and loss account should not be in the journal (he reasons), as the making of such entries is only done when proprietorship is affected. They are merely the bringing together to a conclusion of net proprietorship or net capital.

He further explains that the ledger must always be in balance because of the mathematical rule of "equal amounts added to equal amounts must give equal totals."

In closing the ledger, Stevin transfers the balance of the various accounts direct to other accounts in the ledger without the aid of journal entries, and calls it often "by slote" the Dutch, and sometimes "per solde" the Italian for "in order to close." He puts his assets and liabilities into the capital account, and his profit and losses iu the profit and loss account. He finally closes all accounts by closing the profit and loss account into the capital account. As the difference between present assets and liabilities or net proprietorship must be equal to the capital at the beginning of the year, plus or minus the current profits or losses, the entering of the present assets and liabilities in his capital account is an unnecessary duplication, except it be to effect a closing of all ledger accounts and using the capital account for this purpose as a clearing account.

Stevin explains this method by saying that other writers, and especially the Dutch writer Bertholomi de Rentergem, have in the rear of their ledgers a "balance account," (as Pietra and Ympyn) into which they close their ledger accounts. This, Stevin says, is built from a journal entry made in the old journal. This entry is also posted in reverse order in the new ledger from the journal entry in the old journal. This method Stevin does not like. He says these writers when opening their first journal and ledger, in the beginning of a new business, start with an inventory (see Pacioli and others), but in subsequent ledgers he says they do not do this, and there they call it a balance account. Why not be consistent, he pleads, and open each subsequent journal and ledger with an inventory? He dislikes the balance account method evidently so very much that he wants to get away from it as far as he can, and thus he dumps it all into the capital account, because, he adds, "the result is exactly the same."

Stevin gives an exhaustive chapter about the settlement of partnership affairs. He states that if all the partners are active and were conducting a portion of the business in various cities on the principle of branch stores, each partner should keep a separate set of books, very much the same as the method he explains for consignments or traveling agents, and at headquarters or at one of the branches there should be a joint bookkeeper, whose duty it is to deal in totals, so that each partner may know where he stands in relation to the others. If only one partner is active, this partner should keep the books.

He learned in one instance, as very likely modern accountants will learn from time to time, that a good merchant, no matter how illiterate he is or how ignorant be may be about bookkeeping, usually can tell very accurately whether the accountant's financial statement and bookkeeping results are correct. Stevin was called in to adjust the affairs between a number of partners, of a large partnership. The five active partners were residents of the cities of Venice, Augsburg, Cologne, Antwerp, and London, where they conducted branch establishments of the firm. One of these partners had not kept any books. Stevin was finally induced by this partner to visit him and to write up a full set of books of all the transactions of the partnership which he could find, and thus ascertain the financial settlement between the partners. This he did, after considerable labor. The particular partner who had kept no books, however, objected to the settlement, because it was $£ 300$ less than he figured was coming to him. To prove this, he stated that they had no assets or liabilities of any kind, having liquidated the business; therefore he said: "If I deduct my disbursements from my receipts, and add to the balance what is due me from the others, the total must be my portion of the profit." Stevin agreed with him that this was right, and the set of books was discarded and a settlement made upon the argument of the partner who was ignorant as far as bookkeeping was concerned. From this experience Stevin determined upon the following rule: when called in to make a partnership settlement, he would demand three things: first, the amount each partner has received more in cash than he paid, or what he paid more than he received; second, the difference between presently existing accounts receivable and accounts payable, to which he added the cash and merchandise on hand; third, what the agreement was between the partners as to divisions of profits and losses. He illustrates the application of this rule by the following example:

> A paid more than he received by....

B received more than he paid by

The net assets, or the difference between accounts receivable and payable, added to the cash and merchandise on hand, amounted to.
£7,000
Each partner was to receive one-third of the profits or stand one-third of the losses. He then puts up the following account:

Partnership Debit.

| Due A | £ 2,000 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Due C | 3,000 |
| Total due A and C... | £ 5,000 |
| Net profit | 6,000 |
| Total | £11,000 |

Total
£11,000

## Partnership Credit.

Due from B
Net assets …
£11,000

As of above profit one-third is due to each of the partners, each partner's account would stand as follows: Due A as per above. £2,000

Due C as per above.
Plus one-third of the profits
$£ 4,000$
Plus one-third of the pronts....
5,000

Due from B as per above

Net assets
£7,000
Those of us who have read the numerous involved court cases on partnership settlement, certainly must admire Stevin's ingenuity.

Consignment accounts, which Pacioli calls traveling accounts, are more thoroughly described in this work. Stevin thinks it wrong to debit consignment account and credit merchandise, when the goods are shipped on consignment, because the test when to make an entry is "the beginning and the end of proprietorship." He says it would be foolish to debit a clerk and credit merchandise when a clerk takes goods from a cellar or warehouse to the store or from one part of the store to another. And he feels that consignment is a transaction of a similar nature, with only a greater distance between the places of storage. He states if we want to keep track of these consignment transactions, it should be by way of memoranda but not in the regular books. Like Pacioli, he wants the traveling man or consignee to keep books on the double-entry system and report sales at convenient times, these reports to be entered in a separate journal and ledger until there is "a beginning and an end of proprietorship." It is important to note that Stevin very seldom uses the word "capital," but substitutes the word "proprietorship"' throughout.

All the way through, Stevin uses as a test for the making of a journal entry "the beginning and end of proprietorship." Thus, when goods arrive in the warehouse, that is the beginning of proprietorship, and that account is not touched again, as far as the journal and ledger are concerned, until the goods have left proprietorship through consumption. So, if a barrel of beer were received from the brewer, it would go into the warehouse account or the merchandise account, and there remain until finally the butler on one of the war vessels would distribute it to the sailors, when it would be charged out to them. In the interim, however, the warehouse has sent it to a small ship, which brings it to the ocean, there it is transferred onto a transport, and probably is transferred on the ocean two or three times from one steward's warehouse on one ship to another steward's warehouse on another, until it finally reaches the war vessel upon which it is consumed. While he urges the necessity of following this barrel of beer from place to place, he states that this should be done only in memorandum accounts and not in the general ledger.

Equally insistent he is on the reissue of tools used in the construction of fortifications, canals and buildings, or on the farms and in the field. He says that tools are first purchased, issued to one particular piece of work and then returned to the warehouse and used in other places and transferred from place to place until finally worn out. All of this he feels should be carefully recorded but not in the general ledger.

As to the wages, he very carefully explains that a wages or pay roll account avails one nothing. The wages he says should be carefully distributed to each department for which they are incurred, exactly the same as we have seen Pietra does. He first distributes his wages, as he distributes all his supplies, to definite departments. Thus he says we can arrive at true costs. This method he uses also in checking up the supply house and the cook, for he instructs the cook, as we have seen, to give a record of the daily meals served in order to check the pay roll, and he checks the cook by instructing the warehouse men to figure out the cost of the meals per man. Thus he says, if the cost per meal is considerably higher than the average, and the pay roll agrees with the meals served, then the warehouse man has either made an error or stolen some goods.

In this connection, he provides a perpetual inventory, in which each kind of merchandise has two - columns, one for the receipts or "ins" and one for the disbursements or the "outs." He balances each column when new goods arrive, then counts what is left, and adjusts his books to the actual count.

Gifts of merchandise, he states, must be valued, for three reasons: first, in order to be able to ascertain actual expenses and consumption of merchandise for each department; second, the proprietor should know at all times for how much he is obligated to others; third, in order to know exactly the actual capital invested.

In municipal accounting, he urges that the ledger of any year be held open until at least the end of the next year, to prevent heavy transcribing, very much the same as is done now with some tax rolls.

Stevin in instructing his bookkeepers in the municipal department, tells them to use the words "debit" and "credit"' in the explanation of each journal entry, thus making it a little plainer to the uninitiated in the terms of bookkeeping. From the illustrations it will be noted that he does not do so in mercantile bookkeeping, but only uses the term "debit."

What the writer has said in praise of Stevin should not be interpreted as meaning that he considers Stevin's system perfect or even as perfect as we have today, for in many respects, it is not. But the writer believes that Stevin has left his' unmistakable stamp on modern American methods. It would be interest-

- ing to study the earliest American financial books and ledgers in order to establish that through the Dutch settlers of New Amsterdam (now New York) Stevin's ideas were brought to America, rather than by way of England through Dafforne, who we will see further on in the book, failed to translate to the English language many of Stevin's ideas.


## 

## DOMEINE

 Mette CONTREROLLE en ander behouften vandien. 't Welck isVerclaring van ghemeene Regel, waer deur verböct.worden alle abuyjen mette fwaricheden uytte felve fpruytende, diemen tot noch toe nyt geen Rekencamers van Dometne en Finance bee, 1 connen wercn.
Wefende Oeffeninghen des Doorluchrichften Hoogftgheboren Vorft en Heere MAVRIT'S by Gods Cihenade Prince van Orange, \&c. Ho: Loff: Memorie.
befthreven deur SIMON STEVIN van Brugghe, in finnlevendes Hooghghemelten Hesue PRINCEN Superintendent vande Einance, \&c. En uye fijn naghelaten Hantfehtifen by een gheftelr deut fiju Soon HENDRICK
STEVIN Ambachisheere van Alphen.


In't tweede Iaer des Vredes.

## STAETVAN MYDIERICK <br> Roofe gemaeckt op den laetfen December 1600 .

| Staet of capitael debet. | Stact of capitael credit. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Fer Aernout Iacobs fol. 14 s s. 8.0. <br> Reft debet hier geftelt by fote randefen - - 3140. 9.1. |  <br> 7.ß'tpont, comt - - 60.15 .2 <br> Per Peper fol. 7-120 6f tot 40 g |
| Somme 3191.17.1. | 'ipont, comt - - - 20. 0.0. <br> Per Omacr de Spparte fol. 9., - $\$ 13.12 .0$. <br> Per Adriaen de VVinter fol. 11 - 1 so. 6.0. <br> Per Pieter de Vritte fol. 11 - - 448. 0.0. <br> Per Iacques de Somerfol. 13 - 54.18 .6. <br> Per cafle fol. 19 <br> 1944. 7.5. |
|  | Smme 3191.17.1. |

Sulcx dat Debiteurs, mer gereet gelt en vvaren, hier meer bedragen dan Crediteurs voor vveerde des capitaels op den laetfen van December 1600 - 3140.9. 1.
Maer op den laetten December. 1599, of 't begin des jaers 1600 dat een felve is, vaas het capitael $\operatorname{van} 2153 \alpha_{3} \beta 88$, vant treckende den debet $514 \mathcal{L} 6 ß$ vanden credit $2667 \mathcal{L} 988 \&$, bijft als vooren - - - $\quad-\ldots 53.3 .8$
VVelcke getrocken vande $314^{\circ} \mathcal{\alpha}, \beta!8$, blijft voor 't genc datter op dit jaer verovert is, ende in defe ftaet gefocht vviert - - - 987.5.5.

## STAET PROEF.

MAcr om nu te fien of het bovefchreven valt gaet, fo dient dit tot een proef: Ick vergaer al de reften der poften van vermeerderende of verminderende capitael, 't vvelck fyn de reften der poften die inde voorgaende ftaetmaking niet en quamen,
men, alstotte vvefentliche flact nict behoorende: Ende vvant de felve fyn partyen van viinft en verlics voorgevallen inden tije defer bouckhouding, dats federt o Ianuarius 1600 , velcke by aldienmen het bouck flote (gelijck int volgende 10 Hoofttick gedaen falvorden) op rekening van vvinft en verlies fouden commen, foo moet dan daer deur oock verovering bevonden vvorden van 987 \& 5 B8. Tot defen einde begin ick het Schultbouck te overloopen van vooren acn, ende ontmoet my eerft de pofte der nagelen fol. 5 , vvaer op ick vvinft bevinde van 75.4.7. daer na ontmocten my noten en ander goeden, als hier na volght. Doch ftaet noch te gedencken, dat overfchietende goeden hier berekent voorden ten felven prijfe als inden voorgaenden ftact, om dat vyy nemen haer vveerde foo te vvefen, vvildemen in d'een en d'ander nemen den prijs verandert te zijn, men foudet oock meugen doen.


Nudan het prouffijt deurdefe wvyle pock bevonden fijnde yan $987 \alpha 5$ B 8 , als te vooren int flot des ftacts, foo mach dit tot proef des vvercx verftrecken.

Mercet




| ${ }^{8}$ | 14 | Disem. | 't Iaer 1600. <br> Omaer de Subarte tot Lonnen debet per Adviden de VVinter, deur dat by buop my ontfaen beeft op wriffel vanden felven. Adrisen. Blijckende by fyn fobryven. | $\begin{gathered} \alpha \\ 180 \end{gathered}$ | $B$ 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16 | 31 | Decem. | Oncofen van coom/thap debet per caffe, dear betaels inde maenden vas Inlius, Auzufus, September, Oq才ier, November, en December, blÿckende by't memoritel van dien | 40 | $\bigcirc$ |
| -16 | 31 | Decem. | Oncofen randen buyfe delet per caffe doar betacle inde maenden pan 1ultus, Atranflen, Srptember, October, November, en December, Llyckende by 't memoriael van dien | $80^{\circ}$ | - |
|  |  |  | Merckt dat defe twvee lactte pattien van oncoften fouden na 't gemeen gebruyck verdeelt behooren te vvorden ten einde van yder maent, foo vecl op elcke viel : Doch alfoot vergeten wvas, ick en hebt niet vvillen verfchryven, te meer dattet inde daet fomyvylen footorgaet. |  |  |









36



## DOMETNE.

Reftanten van Hoghenhuyfe.


Den fin der voorfchreventafel is dufdahich : Ghenomen d'eerfte vijf jaren van "velen, dattet houden der contrerolle gheduert heeft, te wefen van 1611. 1612. 1613.1614.16150 Hier af fijin vijf colommen, voor elck jaers befonder contrerolle een: Noch fijn op den cant gheftelt derghelijcke vijf jaren, haer anwijfingh doende opelck der reften daer nevens ftaende, waer af'r ghebruyck dufdanich is.

Ghenomen datmen na het jaer 1615 wil weten de fommen der Reftanten dieder fijnten eynde van yder jaer, der jaren 1611.1612.1613.1614.1615. Oindat te vinden, ick fie dat nevens het jaer 1615 op den cant ftaen $70 \cdot 0-0$. onder het jaer 1611; Daer na 0-0-o.onder 1612, voorts 300 onderi613. Enfo voorts $700-0-0.0$ nder 1614.en 590-0-0.onder 1615.Angaende voorfchreven o-o-o. ftaende nevens het jatr 1615 , en dat onder 1612 , fulcx beteyckent het jaer 1612 heel voldaen te wefen, fonder daer na van dat jaers rekening eenighe Reftanten ineerte connen vallen.

Het

## RICHARD DAFFORNE PARTLY REPRODUCED

In the Library of Congress and in the Library of Harvard College, we find a book by Gerard Malynes, printed in London in 1656, under the title of "Consuetudo Vel Lex Mercatoira," or "The Ancient Law Merchant." This book is a voluminous work, written in the English language, one-half of which contains a digest of the law merchant as then existing; the other half of the volume is occupied by a reprint of Richard Dafforne's book on bookkeeping, "The Merchants' Mirrour." It also contains an introduction to merchants' accounts, by John Collins, together with a treatise by Abraham Liset of Ghent, called "Amphithalami or the Accomptants Closet.'"

We have seen that Richard Dafforne was really the first writer in the English language whose work went through several editions and therefore may be considered as having been more popular than that of his predecessors Ympyn, Oldcastle, Mellis, and Peele. Dafforne resided for a good many years in Holland, where he obtained his knowledge of bookkeeping. He was a teacher in the Dutch and English languages, and in bookkeeping. Part of his treatise called "The Merchants' Mirrour" was written in Amsterdam before he moved to London. The preface to his book indicates his familiarity with the then existing books on bookkeeping, as he names quite a number. Most of the authors of these books he discredits, but he seems to think highly of Simon Stevin, whom he copied in a number of instances. Simon Stevin, however, was a great scholar, whereas Dafforne evidently was but a shallow teacher, for while he quotes freely from Stevin on the most important points, yet he omits to bring home the force of the question as Stevin does. Thus through Dafforne's faulty transfer of the bookkeeping ideas of the Dutch authors into the English language, we have lost the very essence and foundation of the theory of bookkeeping. Any one reading Stevin first and then Dafforne, will have no trouble in arriving at this conclusion. It is like the reading of a letter from an experienced old man, followed by the treatment of the same subject by a high school student.

In the following pages we are giving a partial reproduction of Dafforne's book, consisting of the title page, the introduction, about half of the text, and a few pages of the journal and ledger, together with the entire trial balance. We are omitting part of the text, because it is simply a repetition of previously mentioned methods, applied to numerous mercantile transactions. All of the text in which he attempts to give some theory or explanations, we have reproduced. It will at once be seen that Dafforne was great at explaining How a thing should be done, but incapable of expressing clearly why a thing should be done. He has attempted this in one or two places, and failed signally. We are reproducing so much of his book, because, as explained before, we believe that in Pacioli, Manzoni, Ympyn, Stevin, and Dafforne we have the gradual steps of the transfer of bookkeeping knowledge, within a little over one hundred years, from the Italian through the Dutch into the English; unless, indeed, the Dutch transferred their knowledge to America, direct through the settlers of New Amsterdam (now New York).

At the time of Dafforne's writing, English mercantile customs and bookkeeping methods certainly were in a bad way, judging by Dafforne's own words and complaints. There is an entire absence in the journal and ledger of references to the Deity, althongh the text is full of them. Dafforne even quotes in the language in which it was written a Dutch dissertation on "God, the Giver of all good, all knowledge, and all wisdom."

He explains that a merchant in Amsterdam uses a cash book and a bank book, because his ledger and journal are always behind in posting, otherwise "the ledger might cause the avoidance of the use of these two books." He urges the use of a petty expense book, the totals of which are posted once a month or quarterly, in order to avoid numerous small entries.

What Pacioli calls the memorandum book he calls a waste book, because he says everything is transferred from it into the journal, and when this is done it is useless to preserve it. In Holland they do not preserve it. The inventory and the trial balance are not written in this waste book, because they contain information of a private nature. Blotting or erasures in the journal are improper. He puts his slanting lines (//) in the left-hand margin of the waste book, in order to indicate the transfer to another book, and he evidently prefers this method to the diagonal line drawn through the entries, because, as he says, "it obscures the writing and the figures." Checking of the journal and ledger he calls "re-pointing," using the translation of the old Italian expression of "lancing" or "pointing" as cxplained elsewhere under Pacioli. Dafforne, however, does not say how he does it.

He does not use the expressions "debit" or "credit"' throughout his books, but names them debitor and creditor. He charges the one and discharges the other. He insists that nothing can be entered in the ledger unless it is first entered in the journal. This includes the forwarding of balances from a full page to a new page also the closing entries for profit or loss, and the balancing of the accounts.

Inventory he says consists of stock or estate or capital of the owner, which consists of "increasing improperly" and "decreasing improperly" of the stock or estate. He attempts to explain what the word "improperly" means by quotiug from Stevin, but he missed entirely what Stevin meant, as he applies it wrongly.

He uses the word "stock" wherever Stevin uses the word "capital." As the word "stock" comes evidently from stick or stem, it really has the same origin as the word "capital," as through all the definitions and derivations of the word "stock" the thought of "main" or "principal" seems to appear. From this we might state that capital stock is really tautology, for the two words mean the same thing.

In explaining the first journal entry "cash debitor to stock," he personifies the cash account, because it "represents (to me) a man." He indicates the meaning of debitor by stating that by reason of giving the cash to the man, he is obliged to "render it back," or, as we have seen in Italian, "shall give." He indicates the meaning of creditor by mentioning the words "upon confidence," or, as we have seen in Italian "trusting." In spite of his quoting so freely from Stevin, and coming so near to what Stevin says, Dafforne has failed entirely to transfer to posterity the idea of the real reason for a double entry or two debits and two credits. The nearest he comes to it is by stating that cash, merchandise, and all we possess are but "members of that whole body (stocke), therefore by the joint meeting of all those members the body (stocke) is made compleat." Thus it goes through the entire book, always How but never why, the very opposite of Stevin.

Merchandise of large size and quantities is always kept in a separate account, designated by the name of the merchandise it deals in. If, however, the merchandise consists of small articles of which but a few are handled, the account is called a general merchandise account. He credits a legacy in one place to stock or capital account, and in several other places direct to the profit and loss account. Debitors he calls those "of whom we are to have," or in other words, as written in the Italian, those who "shall give." Creditors he calls "debt-demanders" and as far as inventory items are concerned, he says that stocke is debitor to these debt-demanders.

He says that through a personal or private ledger you can keep a secret of a person's present worth or estate. He is very emphatic in denouncing the use of the cash account for this purpose, as he states three Dutchmen do in their treatise, namely, Waninghen, Buingha, and Carpenter. Here he again barely rubs elbows with Stevin's ideas of proprietorship. He flays the three Dutchmen for promulgating ideas as "book deforming" instead of "book reforming," and he calls their ideas "indefendable errour," "forged imagineries," "forrain bred defects." He further says: "If we were as exact discussors as we are imitators, we had not been so besotted as to entertain those forrain defects, having better at home." It sloould be noted that elsewhere he praises Stevin, and nowhere does he flay him like the above three Dutchmen, yet had Dafforne been less of a discussor and more of an imitator, he would have presented Stevin's exact theories without fault, and thus preserved them for us in the English language as Stevin did for his Dutch countrymen.

He gives 15 rules each for journalizing debits and credits, but he personifies everything to debitor and creditor. In the ledger he uses a double column, one for money, the other for quantities and weights. Cash discounts he deducts from cost of merchandise, whereas rebates are credited to profit and loss. Thus he disagrees, as he says, with Passchier Goossens, Johannes Buingha, J. Carpenter, and Henry Waninghen. Dafforne succeeded here through his faulty reasoning, in mixing up things to such an extent that many minds today are still mixed up on this subject. Waninghen and Carpenter want to carry trades of merchandise through the cash account. Rightly he objects to this, for cash he says should have no entry unless money is really paid or received.

He does not call in his text the difference between the debits and the credits "the balance," as we do today. He says deduct the lesser from the greater, and make a journal entry for "the difference." In his ledger accounts, however, he does not call it, like the Italians do, "difference" but he calls it "balance to close." He uses the word "equalizing" where we now use "balancing," the same as we translated Pacioli's word "saldo" into "equalizing'" or "closing." The closing of the ledger he calls "ballancing of the leager," or "leagers-conclusion." Like Stevin he claims that the ledger needs to be balanced when new books are started, or when the merchant ceases to trade or the owner dies. Balancing, he says, consists of three things, the equalizing of all open accounts, the entering of the difference and transferring of the same to the new account or to the balance account. He does not like the word "balancing," and prefers to call it "estate reckoning," the same as Stevin does, and in this connection he refers to Stevin by saying that Stevin carries his closing balances into his opening capital account, which he calls contradictory, and merely a mistake on Stevin's part. The balancing is divided into a trial balance and a true balance; the trial balance consists of debits and credits of the open ledger accounts before profit and loss entries are made. He published in Amsterdam a "three-fold-mony-ballance," which we have reproduced further on. The true balance he says consists of the "remainders" of the ledger accounts after profit and loss entries have been made.

It should be noted that he says "remainders," as does Pacioli, and not "balances," as we use today. The remainders of the accounts he puts in the true balance on the same side as they are in
the ledger; namely if cash is debit in the ledger it should be debit in the true balance, for he says, balance is a debitor in the place of cash. He gives a detailed explanation of how to close accounts kept in foreign money, and to take care of the profit or loss in the exchange at the time of closing. While he exhibits a balance account and makes journal entries in order to close all accounts in this balance account, he is very particular in explaining that such a procedure is not needed if you desire to use the balance book in the nature of private information. In that case, he says, post direct from the old account in the old ledger to the new account in the new ledger.

The illustrations given of the journal will show that all entries are numbered, that he uses "debitor to"' instead of "debit per," as Stevin uses. Neither does he use the slanting lines (//) so customary in the Italian method, for a division between the debit and the credit, although but one column is given. The ledger page references in the journal are written in the form of a fraction, as Pacioli mentions. Ledger headings, while not as used at this day, are more pronounced than the Italian method, and are almost identical to Stevin's ideas.

In the ledger accounts herewith reproduced, "to" is used ou the debit side and "by" on the credit. The jourual page is also given as well as the ledger folio of the relative entry in the other part of the ledger. Both sides of the ledger bear the same number of the page, and they are called folio. He does not use the word "sundries," in the journal nor in the ledger, nor does he use a sub-total in balancing his ledger accounts, as Stevin does, but uses in front of the total the Italian word "summe." Nowhere in his work does he use the term "assets and liabilities." He uses dots instead of check marks.

# T H E <br> MERCHANTS MIRROUR. <br> <br> $\begin{array}{llllllllll}\mathrm{D} & \mathrm{I} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{O}} \quad \mathrm{T}, & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{I} & \mathrm{O} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{S}\end{array}$ <br> <br> $\begin{array}{llllllllll}\mathrm{D} & \mathrm{I} & \mathrm{R} & \mathrm{E} & \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{O}} \quad \mathrm{T}, & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{I} & \mathrm{O} & \mathrm{N} & \mathrm{S}\end{array}$ For the perfect Ordering and Keeping of his For the perfect Ordering and Keeping of his A C C O U N T S. 

 A C C O U N T S.}

Framed by way of Debitor and Criditor, afer the ( 0 termed) Italian Manner: Containing 250 Rare Queftions, With their Anfwers, in forme of a Dillogue.
AS LIKEWISE
a VVastebook, with a complete Journal and Leager thereunto appertaining; Unto the which I have annexed two orher Wafle-Books for exercife of the Studious: and at the end ofeach is enired the brief Concents of the Leagers Accounts, arifing from thence.
AND ALSO

A MONETH-BOOK, very requifite for Merchants, and commodious for all ochet $S C I E \cap C E-L O V \mathcal{R} S$ of this Famous Arr.

The Third Edition, Corrected and Amended.
Compiled by Richardodafforna of Nerthampton, Accountant, and Teacher of the fame, after an Exquifite Mechod, in the Englifh and Dutch Language.
J. Vainden $V$.

Soo ennigh litht=0erifpeno $=$ Bana,
Ppun werk berarht, of foecht t'onteeren, $\$$ Die mactket beeter, 900 ly kan:
'ablebb groote laft noch meer te zeeren.
H. L. S.

Dozdelt iemant booz het lleeţen;
fliet geet ban fun 9 Dodol weeten.
Ilecrende, lecte ick.
The Contents are immediately prefixed before the Book.

$$
2 O N D O N \text {, }
$$

Printed by R. H. and F. G. for Nicholas Bourn, at the South-entrance of the Royall Exchange, 1660.

## TOTHE

## RIGHTHONOURABLE

 A N D RIGHT WOORSHIPFULL
## THE <br> governours, FELLOWSHIP

Merchants Adventurers of England. Englifb Merchants for the Difcovery of New Trades. Merchants of Eaff-land.
O F $\langle$ Merchants of England, trading into the Levant Seas.
Merchants of London, trading into the Eaft-Indies.
Adventurers of the City of London, for a Trade upon the Coafts and In-lands of divers parts of America.
Richard Daffornefo wifheth your Underftandings Illumination, in your Terreftriall Talents Adminiftration, that with comfort you may hear the joyfull Sentence of your twice commended fervice; Mat. 25. Ver.-21, 23 .

> Well done thou good, and faithfull fervant true, Thou baft been faitbfull over things a few, Ile make thee Ruler over many things, Pofffe the joy of thy Lord, King of Kings.

## Riget Honourable, ơc.

Frer many yeers refidencear Amfterdam in Holland, I (upon the often Importunate Letters of fome Merchants, my very good Friends) refolved to picch the Tenc of my abode in London, which being elfected in Anno $1630 . I$ then (after fome reft) fet my courfe unto feverall Stationers Shops; there gazing about me (as one reviving from a Trance) to view what the Laborious Arcilt had acted and divulged in Print (as other Naxions) for the Affiftance of Merchandizing, wherewith (Blassed be the Great ALL) this Renowned City is throughly Enerlaced, and Adorned.

But as a Shipper anchoring upon an unknown Ile, prefently perceivech thoré

## The Epifle Dedicatory.

parts not to be inhabited, by the Non-tillage, or the like ; even fo (contrary to my expectation) I perceiving the number of Writers to be few, feared that love tothis Art was likewife fmall: Seeing That Good Acceptance Engendereth Good Performance. The truth of this I can averre with many Inftances in feverall Authors; as Fereffain, John Impen, Cloot, Mennber, Savonne, Nicholas Pieterfon, Rentergem, Marten Vanden Dyck, Hoorbeck, roan Damme, Wencelaus, Couterels, Simon Stevin, Iobn Willemfon, Waninghen, Pafjclia, Gooffen, and divers others, whofe Books are extant. By which may evidently be conjectured, that in thofe times, and in their parts where they then publifhed their Works, were found many Science-lover's that affected this Art; by whofe allurements thofe worthy Writers were induced to fet Pen to Paper, endeavouring with their beft gifts to latisfie the defire of thofe Art-defirers.

The Merchants of the Low-countries (of whom I can feak in part) being generally enamoured of this Art; becaufe of its Ucility, allure their Teachers to induftry, by applauding their Vigilancy; encouraging them (with the prefence of their Children and Servants in the Schooles) daily to publifh new Queftions; or ar leaft to revive the profitable Labours of ancient Authors, making them fir for our times.

But we, alas, the fmall love (pardon my truth feaking) that 2 great part of our Merchants bear to this Science, daunteth the Pen of Induftry in our 'Teachers, making theri with a fufpective fear to doubr(\& not altogether groundlefs) that the profit will not countervail their pains; by which means reachers, Mercbants, and therefore Youth, are linked in Aits enemies Shackles.

What may be che caufe of this Ignorance? Are our 'Teachers fo infufficient? Or bert dame Nature, with her Coadjute or induftry beftowed her Benevolence more fparingly upon our Nation than upon others? The laft cannor be: for we can learn it exquifitly abroad of other Nations (as multitudes can witnefs) why not at home? anfwer, as before, becaufe at home(for want of love to this Art) many Merchants are infufficienc Prefidents to their Servants, who by their Documents can be but Eqquivalent Imitators. Want of love to this Art, is the caufe why $\operatorname{Fames} \mathscr{P}_{\text {eele }}$, and others that have written in Englifh upon this fubject, are knowne by Name onely, and not by Imitation. Yea, even the memory of their Names dieth, being there is no caufe to commit their painfull Labours to the Name-reviving Prels. How then fhall our Youth atain unto this Art, but by frequenting abroad amongt other nations? And

> They being then at Rome, VVill do as there is done.

This fupidity cannot be imputed to our $T_{\text {eachers }}$ : for if at home (as other people do) we did by Love allure; and with Reward induce each ocher to Art by a competent Difpenfation amonglt our felves, of that money which we beftow abroad amongft Aliens, then would our $\mathcal{T}_{\text {eachers }}$ be vigilant, cur Land adorned with this Knowledge, and our Youth fhould not need to be tranfported into other Countries for Arts documents.

Againft the forefaid Ignorance I have emboldened my felf to prepare

## Tbe Epiflle Dedicatory.

this Antidote, being by Nature obliged to offer up part of the Widowes Mite of my knowledg unto the Land of my Breaths firft drawing.

Divers are the humours of men : therefore there is but fmall Probability to pleafe all: yet to endeavour a generall fatisfaction is unblameable.

My intent is not to prefcribe thefe Principles as fully fufficient, though for their $N$ umber approveable: for time at prefent doth not yield permiffion to impart what my Affections defired, and will determined to divulge ; but chefe are Allurements onely, to ftir up the better experienced to ainend whae I (chrough want of Art) have not fo compleatly handled as I defire, and it deferves, being an Art (faith Simon Stevin in his Princely Book-keeping, fol. 7 , V1 12 .) worthy to be numbred amongft the Liberall Sciences. But I already hear Objections againft the Firft,\& Second Wafte books; that cherein are exercifed fome accounts, which are altogether needlefíe here in England : as is the Banck-Accoumt:I grant it to be an Account not ufefull in our Kingdome; but that the knowledge thereof fhould be un-ufefull to this Arts-Learners, I deny. True it is, that by Birth we are Circumferenced nitb the Ocean; but the Great-All hath not fo frictly limited us within the bounds thereof, that we are abridged from the Converfation and Entercourfe of Merchandizing with forrain Nations, as well by their frequenting of our Borders, as we Commercing with them in the Body of their Comittres. And when our Merchants (Old or Young) crade with them in their places, $m u / t$ nob tbey learn to be acquainted with tbeir pbrafes ufed among them concerning Commerce? Of which Banak is none of the leaft in feverall places of Europe, unto which our Englifh Merchants have their Concourfe. And muft the advertifement of the Courfe thereof (before we come to the $\AA$ ₹uall exercife) be a Blemufh, and accounted as a needleffe thing in my Book ? Rigbt Worfhipfuls bethold the Rancor of black Envy, that endeavoureth to haveus ignorant of Martiall affaits, untill we come to the point of Battail. The like Objection is alleaged againft my entring of an Account of Time and Ready-mony. What if we have chem not in ule amongft our felves ? Letus caft up our accounts with other Nations, and (to our coft) they will teach us how to frame an account of Time and Ready mony; if our Eactor, or Correffondent be in disburfe for us any quantity of mony, and for Time worth the reckoning, as experience hath fhewed me in many pafliges. And what then ? Muft not we feek the aid of fome experienced ro affift us ? becaufe we regarded not the documents of them (at home) that endeavoured to inform us of the Manner and Matter. What Amercement doth not this Difdain-wiorthy wilfull Ignorance merit?
Again, the keeping of an account of Time and Ready-mony (fay they)may be avoided with an account Currant, - or a General account, upon which is entred matters Bought, Sold, Draton, Remitted, Given,or Taken upon Depofiro, and the like: of which manner I am no way ignorant. But let us cometo the Period, or Foot of that General account, and there the Conclufion fheweth, that I amDebitor to another, or the Contrary : how fhall I find Ready-money thatat prefent I am to receive or pay upon that account?


Good Friend of mine (faith Simon Steven) being exercifed in the Old Hiftories, did Fee this forme of Book-keep ing (meaning his owne) before it was perfected in the Preffe; he was of judgement that it had not been ufed in Italy, but about two hundred years : But that the fame, or one in many parts very like this, was ufed in the time of Falius $C_{A}$ ara, and in Rome long before; and that fome Reliques of Ancient time are come to the hands of them, that of late have received it again.

Which Opinion 1 thought not to be un-befeeming, the rather, becaufe it feemeth ftrange, that fo exquifite a Deep-diving-Science fhould be invented fo lately : But be it as ic will, I will enter the Opinion of my abovefaid Friend, whofaith, that

In place of the proper words now ufed in the Italian-book-keeping, for merly other of the like fignification were uled: as chefe,

$$
\text { For }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { Debt-book, Great-book, or Leager - Tabule accepti \&o expenf. } \\
\text { Debitor and Creditor } \\
\text { Parcells cranfported into the Leager - Acceptum of expenfum. } \\
\text { Parcells nor rranfported } \\
\text { Wafte-book, or perhaps Journall - Nomen jacensf. } \\
\text { - Adverfaria. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

All which (faith he) is apparent in innumerable places of the Latine Wrirers; but elpecially ex Oratione Ciceronis pro Rofcio Comedo. And that the one fide of their Book was ufed for $D_{\text {ebtor }}$, the other for Creditor, is manifeft (faich he) in a certain place, Naturalis biftoria Plinii, lib. 2. cap.7. wherehe fpeaking of Fortune, faith thus:

Huic omnia ExPENSA.
Huic ommiaferanturaccepta, of in totaratione kertalium fola UTrameue Paginamfacit.

If others took regard unto this matter, perhaps further certainty might be found, and that this forme of Book-keeping, not onely by the Romans, but might have been in ufe before them amongtt the Grecians : for being the Romans were no great Inventors, but had their exquifite Art from the Grecians, it is in reafon molt probable to come from them ; whereof further cerainty might be found in reading the Greek Hiftories. Thus much in Simon Steven, fol. 105, 106.

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32. Of felling for other wares, that is, Barter, or Truck, place 97,98,99. fol. 26.
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63. Payments upon feverall conditions, place 188.fol.41.
64. Sales of wares by means of $m y$ Admintfration, place 191.fol.42.
65. Sales of wares by Factor, or Correfpondent, place 194.fol. 42.
66. Retarnes from Factor, or Correipondent in mony drawn by us, place 198. fol. $4^{22}$.
67. Returnes in mony.remitted is ws, place 199. fol.43.
68. Returnes in mares from Factor, or Correfpondent, place 201.fol. 43.
69. stock promifed by MEE, to be paid prefently, place 202. fol. 43 .
70. Tranforting of Accounts in the Leager, from one leafe unto another, place 207.fol. 44* 71. Equalizing of Over, or Lindermeafures, Weight, Leackage, Pounds, Ells, or the like, place 213.501 .45.
72. Leagers Conelufion, or Ballancing of the Leager, place $216 . f o l$. 46. And ibe caufes that may mnove tea Generall Ballance.
73. Of the Tryall-Ballance, and the manner, place.228.fol.46.
74. Of the True- Ballance, place 221 .fo.47.
75. Obfervations in Ballancing of the Leager, place 222 fol. $47,48,49,50$.
76. Particalar obfervations upon the Debit fide of the True-ballance, place 24 r.fol. 51 .
77. Particular obfervations upon the Credit
fide of the True-Ballance, place 242 fol. 51.
78. Of ibe ffournalls forme, place 243. fo. $^{2} 2$.
79. Of the Jaurnalls office, place 244 .
80. Of the fignifying figures that ftand above, and under the lines in ibe Lournalls margine, place 246.fol. 54.
81. Of thewafte-books further Exercife, being compiled in London, fol. 55.Lit.I.K.N'.I.
82. of the compleat lournall unto the faid Wafte-book, beginning Lit.K.No.2.continuing Lit.L.M.
83. of the Kalenders form, and Ule, Lit, N.
84. Of the compleat Leager, depesding upon the fore- -aid Wafte-book, and Iournall, Lit. O. $\mathrm{N}^{j} \cdot 2,60 n t i n x i n g$ Lit.P.Q.R.
85. Of the Ioirnall, Kalender, and Leager, $\mathrm{N}^{\circ}$.B. with the order bow to begin New books; Lit.S.
86. Of the firft Wafte-Book, entred for ibe Beginning Learners ciercije, and taught by me, Lit.T. N.2. compiled in Amfterdam, iohofe Contents (through the viarieties of Titles numbers) are apparent, and inftantly difcerned by the Books Over-view, containing 78. Titles; differing from each otber in matter, for the Beginners exercife : asd fo compiled, that. the further be pafleth, the more ancreafeth. his Studies occafions.
87. Of the Kalender, and briefe Contents of the Leager, depending unto the faid wafto-book, Lit. Bb. $\mathrm{N}^{\circ}$. 1. with a threc-fold Mony-Ballance of the faid Leager, Lit. Cc. $\mathrm{N}^{\circ} .2$.
88. of the Second Wafte- Book, entred for a further Exercife of the Beginner; and tangls by me, Lit.Dd.N.․ 1. whofe exquifte varieties cannot truely be difcerried bat by the morking of it ; whick work will require us much fertous fudy at the wery End, as any of the former Propofitions: spbach approweth, that in bis Learnings time no waffe time is Jpent.
89. Of the Kaleader, and briefe Contents of the Leager, belonging anto thi fecond Waftebook, Lit li. $\mathrm{N}^{\circ}$. 2.including Kk, $\mathrm{N}^{\circ} .3$. 90. Of the Factor-Book, and a/e theteoof in feverall mannor* af ensrances,Zit.Kk.N .4. 91. Then fotloweth a Table, mbich blewetb How to fivd what the Principall, and fimple Intereft of any Given, or Taken fummé wild be at the agreed times end, L. Mm. $\mathrm{N}^{\circ}$.1.


## THEFIRST PLACE.

## SPEAKERS;

## Philo-Mathy.School-Partner.

Phil. FTOw now School lartner! Whither away thas folitarye it feems you are in fome ferious Mediration.
Sch. Surely you have judged aright : for I was mufing upon our Mafters Inftructions of Book-keeping, tanght us by way of Queftions aud Anfwers; whereof I have forgorten much, becaule 1 frequent not the daily examination.

Pbil. Very likely: For Exercife is the Preferver of Art; therefore do I daily refort to the examination, which (you know) our Mafter continually ufeth: the which not onely confirmeth what we have, but it is likewife as Augmenter of Kwowledg, according to the Motto of James Peel: Practice procuretb perfection

Sch. Surely you fay truth: Therefore I intreat you (feeing we have time and opportunity) to queftion me in fuch things as at prefent are readieft in your mind; beginning with the firft grounds of our Mafters Initructions, and fo in brief fort to wade through them all, for the refrething of my memory.

Phil. Very gladly : for in queftioning of you I hall be the better confirmed in that which already I have obteined. But feeing that all good gifts (even in mean Mechanical matters) proceed from the All-giver, as in Exod.31. Ver. 2,3,4,6,7,appearetb, therefore do I humbly intreat my underfandings illumnation from thee :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { D!alvetbulleuio ten, oie alles fcheppe gpt, }
\end{aligned}
$$

Df yet aat oust begrip, vedenkett kan, of baters:
alstchom, almatigh, watps, end:(5agoigh boben maten!
Wap fupten bugoen a'ers baak datrme ghiften déven,
©theft mp énftherp begrip, ©Boto wibal, ware kermis.
siDer ainghen onder Icheio Doma, ugt mote llaeren,

Taking now my beginning from our Mafters grounds, I intend in order (according to capacity) to paffe through them all : and being that Book-writing, by way of Debitor and Creditor, after the(fo termed) Italian manner, is renowned to be an exquffite knowledg, thew me irs event.

Sch. The Event or End is (faith one)chat which moveth to Altion, and che End finall is ever betrer then that which is for the End ; yet this End cannor be attained, bur by another thing intended, as a means theleonro : So, that all things which (as means) are for, and conduce to the End, are not intended, nor profecured, buc out of a deliberate and full intention of the End,
In like manner.

The End of Book-writing is to give contentment unto the Book-owner, and to fhew him (or them, whom they do concern)at all times, and in every degree, how his Eftate ftandeth in the fo written Books. For, the view of a well eftablifhed Eftate in a mans Books, procuireth contentment unto the poffeffor; yet this contentmens (for no reft without former labour) cannot be attained, bot by another thing intended as a means thereunto: to wit, Book-kecping. knowledge: and being known, profecuted, and.affected; the fame being very Requifice, Ulefull, and Commodious for the writing.

> (Princely Revenues, findings of Cuftomes, and the like daties; of which at prefent I intend not to treat, but may hereafter have fome occafion to fhew the neceffiry thereof in Princely Courts, as well as in Merchants paffages Ot the which there is a worthy work compiled in Dutch for Prince Maurice, Conte of Naffaw, which he learned of the Compiler, Simon Scevio h's Marhematician, and exercifed the Came in bis Courr, which fill (as I have been informed) is there in ufe, as alfo in the Swethian Court, and elfewhere.
> Of
> Merchants-trading; being for Proper, Factarage, or Compainy accounts: of (this I intend to fpeak at prefent.

And this Mirrour of Eftace is not to be feen in any Book,but onely in the Leager,wifofe proper office it is to thew the Eftace of the fame to the Book-owner.

## of needleffe Books.

This reproveth the keeping of a mans Eftate in many Books : as in a Book of Buying, another of Selling, another of Receipts, another of Shipping, and what not All thefe Books cannot thew a mans Eftate, nor Cafe of flanding with any man, or in any Commodity, untill all matters are drawn to a head upon a paper in form of a Leager; fo that they have every way as much trouble in writing their imperfect form, as we in making our work compleat at once : but the generality want capacity to apprebend the manner, and rectifie their own defects: therefore they affect this form but with friall affection.
Phil. Being that the tenor of our fpeech concerneth Books, I take it not unfitting that you rethearle thofe Books that are moft requifite for Merchants ufe,to avoid all thofe needleffe Books.
of the Cafb-Book; and Banck-Book.

Sch. A Merchant in Amfterdam ufeth a Cafh Book, and a Banck-Book, beciufe bis Journall and Leager are (in pofting) behind-hand, elfe the Leager migtt caufe the avoiding for thofe two Books.

## of the specte-Book.

A Merchant ufech likewife a Specie-Biook, More uffull for the Low-Countries then for England, becaufé of the variety of Coines there in ufe; as likewife in times of controverfie to approve what Coins paffed in Rieceipt of Payment: whereof John Contereels of Ant-

Werp hath thewed a worthy example in his Book called iDen stile bandiboekn;ucen.
of the petty Expences-Book.

More, he afeth a Book of petty Expences for houfe-keeping, and fmall disburfements upon Merchandizing ; the which are pofted once a moneth, or quarter of a year, into the Journall, of which the faid John Coutereets $\mathrm{N}^{\circ}$. B. fol. $9,10,11$. hath lively inftances. Śimon Stevin in his Priacely Book-keeping,fol.52. writeth concerning this Book, thus:

This Book of Expences is likewife a kind of a Cafh-Book, and is onely for charges, which generally are pofted once a moneth in one fume into the Journall : partly, for bre vity, to poft many petties into one fumme : partly, becaufe in great mens houfes, its the proper office of fome one man to adminiftrate thofe petty expences, rendring an account of each particular, 25 well for Muftard and Marches to kindle the fire, as of things of greater importance, unto which end there is kept a Particular-Book.

## Copy Book of Letters.

More, he keepeth a Copy Book of Letters, which informeth his memory of what he hath written unco others; and this Book is very requifite againtt controverfies of advices, the Letters fometimes not being well underfood by the receiver.

## of the Memoriall.

A Merchant may ufe a Memoriall, there to note fome things that properly appertain to no other Book: as for inftance; I lent unto a man a hilling, or a pound, for a day or a week, its fufficient to note a word or two per memory, without making any Journall parcell of the fame : yea not in the Clad or Wafte-Book, for that hath another office. Simon Stevin, fol. 2 r . Some enter fuch things in the Clad, but the fame is fo large, that by prolongation of time its hard to be found; and caufech likewife a doubt in the Accomptant whether is fhall be polted, or not.

## Copy Book for Accounts:

Some ufe likewile a Copy Book for Accounts, fent, or delivered to any man, becaufe the Leager agreeth not compleatly in each particular parcell in order, or day, with the fent Account; elfe that Book, and the writing thereof might be avoided, of which form, if any man defire an inftance, may have it in the Book of John Coutereels, lit.O.fol.6.6.7.

Foat other principall Books doth a Merchant ufe in his Traffique, to wit:
(Wafte-book, fore-runner of the Journall
A Fournall, or Day-book, fore-runner of the Leager.
Leager, or Gather-book, Mirrour of a mans Eftare.
\&Factor book, for the entring of each particular received, pack or par-
cell of wares alone, that cometh into his hands to fell, either in Commiffion, or for Compa-
ny Account. Of thefe laft four Books I intend to treat, and to explain their proper offices, as much as the All-Comprizer fhall pleafe to impart to my prefent memories apprehenfi-
on.
For,
On thee, $O$ God, I do depend, Ever me with thy shield depend, That Fefocs my Redeeming Lord
May. Mercies fentence me offord:
And tbat the Illuminating Sp'rit
Grant that 1 may know my felf aright,
Toput my confidence alorie
In Trinity, but elfe-where none.
For none but thow didft wifdome give
Uniro Bezaleè, Uri's fonne:

## WASTE-BOOK:

So called, becaufe when the matter is written into the Journall, then is this book void, and of no efteem; efpecially in Holland, where the buying people firme not the Waftebook, as here our! Nation do in England.

Pbil. Explaine the office and dependances of the Wafte-book. sch. Two things are to be noted in the Wafte-book.

$$
\text { The }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { Form } \\
\text { offic }\}
\end{array}\right\} \text { thereofo }
$$

-The Forme is, that this book is lined towards the left band with one line (bat fome ufe two) and towards the right hand with three; leaving towards the left hand a Margine or whitenefs of an inch or leffe, according to the books largeneffe, to enter thetein the Day; Moneth, Mark of the Commodity, or all : and between the three lines towards the right hand, there to enter the mony, as by feverall inftances fhall be made plain.
The office of this book is, that onely the Daily-trading oaght to be written therein, even as it is truly.acted:

## A. S

Buying, Selling, Receiving, Paying, Drawing, Remitting, Afiignments, Shipping, \&c. and this muft be entred immediately upon the action of the thing acted, to the end no paf-
 That which is written, Remaineth. In this book ought neither Inventory nor Ballance of the Leager to be entred; for that is againft the office of this book: it being onely to write Traficking paffages in. In this book may write Mafter, Accomptant, or any Servant of the houle, by whom the thing is acted, or by advice and order of another. In this book muft the matter be entred in plain fincerity as it is acted, without Debitor, or Creditor forme; for that is the proper office of the Journall: likewife many people underftand the Wafte- book entrances, that apprehend not the Journall forme. In this book ought the parcels to be entred clofe under each other as they. were acted, without leaving of any empty paper, to avoid fufpicion of Forging any parcells betwixt them, upon any omitted occafion: and each parcell ought to be feparated with a line from the other before written, and enfuing parcel. In this book ought the acted matter to be firft entred; partly, becaule it is a fore-runner of the Journal:efpecially whenthe Merchant ufeth an Accomptant that dwellech without his houfe; for he may fometime be abfent when fuch matters are aited. Again; there may be an error committed in Weight, Meafure, Quantity or Cafting. Again, becaufe the matter or condition may be changed, by dimininhing or augmenting of any. thing; or by wholly leaving out of any matrer, the bargain being broken, and fo that parcell cancelled there : for Blorching or Racing out of any parcell in the Journall is onbefeeming.

Fbil. What confiderations elfe are co be obferved in this Wafte-book?
$s c h$. Five other things muft be duely obferved in this bools:

1. The Year, Moneth, Day, Town or Place where fuch matters are acted.
2. The Name and Surname of the Party with whom we trade : or, if it be Factorage, then unto the former name muft be added the Owners name for whom the thing is effeCted, as likewife the place of his Refidence ? and whether the Bargain be for Time or Ready mony, that's alike, in refpect of Booking the fame unto him whofe Commodities they are.

# An Introduction to Mercbants Accompts. 

3. The quantity or quality of the thing traded for : as, Ells, Pieces, Colours Weight, Mark, Namber, Exchanges, Affignments, or the like.
4. The value of price of the thing craded for : whecher Wares, Exchanges, or the like.
5. The conditions or circumftances that were ufed about the matter: as Time, Surecihip, Bonds given,or taken, Brokeridge, \&c.

> The Wafte Book parcells are of tenour, as the enfuing examples.

Anno 1630. the 25. of March, in London:
Marmaduke Grimfon of Northampton, leideth me 68. P. untill the firf of May next coming : which fumme(by his affignment)my Cafhier receiveth of Artbur Manering, in confideration whereof I am to allow him certain mony; being, with principall

Day.
Affigned Sybrant Fohnfon upon Thomits Cofter, for the accompt of Seager solt, to receive, 495.l'the remainer hath my Cafhier received of Fohn sybrantfon, by affignment of the faid Cofter, with 7.1. 10. for fix weeks time forbearance : the whole being

Agreed with facob Fiohn fon of Marken, to let him have 3000. Florines for Franckford, at 8 i. $\mathbf{d}$. Flemifh, to be repayd to me, or Affignes, the firft of June next; as the Exchange ohall then return from Franckford: this being mony for the Company of Edward Denis at Northampton and me, each one halfe, producing

In part of payment of the fame, I deliver him 18. Lafts, 7. Mudde of Rye, being in Company $\frac{3}{3}$ for Ediward Denis, and $\frac{3}{3}$ for me; at $150 . \mathrm{gl}$. each Laft ready-mony, is gl. 3834. 8. 12. The remainer have I made good in Banck (for him) upon the accompt of Fohn Fohnfon Vinck, abating 22. ial. for Banck-mony,at one per Cent. the whole produceth

Phil. What ufe have thofe flaneling ftrokes that are drawn in the Margine :
sch. They have two ufes: 1. They hhew how far is pofted out of the Wafte-book into the Jonrnall; and they are a fare mark that a man omit no parcell, being called away from his polting: neither to enter one thing twice upon the faid calling away. 2. They fhew how many Journal parcells are included in fuch a Wafte Book parcel: infomuch, that in re-pointing of the Wafte-Book, a man may the eafier fee the quantity of the included parcells, when the Wafte and Journall fhall be compared againft each other. Some draw thofe frokes on the right hand, where the mony is; but that multitude of Strokes darkneth the mony fummes: eact his choice. The Wafte-Book parcells ought with all convenient fpeed to be pofted into the Jonrnall, and Leager, to the end the Book owner may the better difcern how his cafe ftandeth with each man, and matter. Thus much of the Wafte-Book in Form, Offict, and Circumflances: Now,

## OFTHEJOURNALL.

It being the firlt exquifite Book, wherein carefully moft be obferved, that each parcel have its Charge, and Difcharge : that is, the true Debitor, and Creditor, wherewith each Journal parcel ought to begin:which being well apprehended, and with fir words(according to the nature of the matrer)exprefted, ts one of the ebiofef principles
belonging
belonging untobook-keeping. Mark well; he that can difcern the true Debitor and Creditor, in any propounded propofition (concerning this Art) hath the right (Theorick) inward' ground-knowledge and concemplation of the macters: and he, and onely he (with the help of Arithmerick) goech firm in his action, to give tach man his due, and book his rnatters under due and true Titles. It is very requifite (if poffible it may be effected) that the Journall be written by one man : for in times of controverfie he can beft anfwer for his own poftings:

Phil. What things are moft requifite in the Journall to be noted?
sch. Three Notable things are to noted in the Journall :

1. The Matter where of it is made.
2. The Form thereof.
3. The office whereunto it is ufed.

## OFTHEJOURNALLS MATTER.

$P$ Pil. Proceed to the Explication of the firft member.
Sch. The Matter whereof the Journall is made, may be drawn to five chief branches: for it
[1. From the Inventary: as in the 10. and fo to 61. place.
2. From Traffickes contimall Exercife: as in 62. place (including 205.)
3. From tranfporting of full accounts in the Leager unto a new leaf,See 206. proceedeth<
4. From the equalizing of Over, or Under-weights, Meafures, or the like. See 212 . place.
5. From the Leagers Conclude, or Ballancing of the Leager. See 215 . place

Phil. Go on with the firft branch.
sch. An ufuall Inventary generally confifteth in
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1. Ready-mony, and that in Cafh, in Banck, or both. } \\ \text { 2. Wares remaining unfould for proper accompt: under this fecond } \\ \text { member is included Houfes, Lands, Rents,Ships-parts sas alfo Wares } \\ \text { unfould for Faetorage, or Company-accompts, and thofe that were } \\ \text { formerly fhipt unto another place, being as yet unfould for-Proper, } \\ \text { Factorage, or Company accompts. }\end{array}\right.$
SIncreafing :

phil. In the above-ftanding Table you Ipeak of Stockes Increafing; and Decreafing Improperly; explain the word Improper.

Sch. Simon Stevin, difcourfing of Merchants Book-keeping, fol.55. with Prince Mas-
rirs, concerning Stockes Increafing, and Decreafing : the Prince faith, that, Monies, Wares, and Dibitors, Increafe Stock : for the more a man hath of them; the greater will his Stock be. Contrarily, Débt-demanders Decreafe Stock. Simon Sevin replyeth, to be of another Opinion; expreffing himfelf with the enfuing Inftance : It (faith he) in former Books I bought of Peter a Bale of Pepper upon Time; that Pepper augmenterh not my Stock: for Pecer demandeth of me the value, time being expired. In like manner, my Stock decreafeth not, becaufe Peter is a Debr-demander: for its as mach augmented by the Pepper. But if a Bale of Pepper be given me, that, truly augmenteth my Stock: for I enter, Pepper-debitor to Stock. And, fol 54. A Merchant giving certain hundreds to Marriage with his Daughter, that decreafeth Stock. By this may eafily be difcerned, what Stock Augmenter,and Diminifher properly is.

Phil. Speaking of Stocks Increafing, and Decreafing, you rehearfed in how many parts the fubftance of an Inventary did confift; but let me now hear you nominate the true Debitors and Crediters of the fame onely, wirhout any other Circumftances of Dictations.
sch. Togive you the berrer content, I will feake of each in order as they ftand: and firt,

## OF THEREADYMONY.

Phil. How Book you the Ready-mony after the way of Debitor and Creditor :
Sch. Cafh Debitor to Stock.
Phil. Why make you Ca/h Debitor?
Sch. Becaufe Ca/b (having received my mony into it) is obliged to reftore it again at my pleafure : for $\mathcal{C} a / \mathrm{h}$ reprefenteth (to me) a man, to whom I (onely upon confidence) have put my mony into his keeping; the which by reafon is obliged to render it back, or, to give me an account what is become of it: even fo, if cafh be broken open, it giveth me notice what's become of my mony, elfe it would redound ic wholly back to me.

Phil. Why do you ufe the word Cafh, beng the word Mony is in ufe amongft our Nation ?
sch. Simon Stévin treating of this word with Prince Maurits of Naflau, in the fift Head-point of his Princely Book-keeping, fol 52 . Saith, that he could give none other reafon, but onely, that this word is in $U \rho_{\rho}$, which if it were not, I account is better(faith he) to have faid, Mony is Debitor.

Our Mạter ufually alledged the difference between private, and generall difcourfes, fhewing that many words are ufually among Dutch, French, and other Nations, with whom a Merchant dosh rrafficke: rherefore he thought it fitteft to ufe generall words, as being generally known, and moft ufefull in Book- keeping; elfe (faid he) why fhould not Mony bear its own Name as well as other commodities?

Phil. One ocher Queftion I have so demand before you proceed, which is, Why is Stock made Crediror:

Sch. Becaufe the word Stock containeth in it, all what a man poffeffeth; whether Money, Wares, Debts due to us, or the like: and (marke this well) Cafh, yea, each particular. thing that I poifefle, is but a member of that whole body stocke; therefore by the joynt meeting of all thofe members, the body (Stock) is made complear.
phil. Having paffed the firft part of Ready-mony, treat now fomewhat

## OFTHEMONYINBANCKE.

For in the thands of the Honourable Lords of the Bancke, I have a certain fumme of money; how fhalll I Book that :

## 14

## 40

Pijil. I perceive you cleave clofe to the Table.
Sch. School-men (as I have read) fay, that agood Difputant ought never to digreffe from the propounded Propofition, untill it be difcuffed. Neither ought any Writer to commit a digreffion from the grounds of his intended fubject, as is here the before-entred Table in the 10 . place; as alfo the enfuing three Tables; ro wit, The Table of Accounts Proper in the 63. place: the fable of Faiforage-accounts in the 122. place: and the Table of Company-accounts in the $\mathbf{1 7 4}$. place. From thefe I intend not to ftray; but in order will work upon them (as the Table fhall deliver matter thereunto :) the more, becaule any one which fhall have occafion to feek a matter in any of thofe particular Tables, whecher in the Inventaries, Proper, Factorage, or, Company-Tables, may prefently know what goeth before, or, followeth his delired matter.

Phil. But to our intended purpofe; rehearfe fome Inftances of Company unfold Wares.


Phil. Having in order waded through the fecond branch of the Inventary:Table, in the 10. place; proceed to the third branch of Stocks increafing: being

> DEBITORS, OF WHOM WE ARE TO HAVE.

Sch. Four in number are they comprehended under, in the third branch of the 10 .place, and may all be joyned as under one; yet in brief I will touch each apart: as
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1. B. C. to whom we formerly fold, or, that he had accepted our Exchanges, } \\ \text { Debitor to Stock. } \\ \text { 2.C.D. at Venice my account currant, Debitor to Stock. }\end{array}\right.$
3. Partner:

| $\}^{1} 1$ | (Whohath part of My eftate in his hands, to be imployed, by him for the good of our Company : N. N. my accoune by him in Company, Debitor to Stock. <br> Whofe part of Stock is in my hands to be by me imployed, and |
| :---: | :---: |
| (4.M.M.at | I am for him in disburfe : N.N. his account by me in Company, Debitor to Stock. chefter his account Currant, Debitor to Stock. |

By the word Currant, do not I anderftand the account that is oppofite to an account of Time, (Por I diftingainh them by the name of Time, and Ready-mony) but by Currant, I underftand, a Rusning account, (Conte-Courante) upon the which all things may paffe, as well for time, as Ready-mony.

Pbil. Thus I lee you have paffed chrough the three branches of Stocks Increafing, with the dependances of the fame in a briefe manner: what followeth next to treat of:

## DEBT-DEMANDERS.

Sch. In the ro. place is thewed, that Stock hath (Improperly)a Decreafing part; and that again is divided into five Sab divifions:ot thefe in briefe likewife, after a plain manner: as thas,

Stocke is $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { My acconnt by him in Company, he having paid out more then } \\ \text { his part doth import. }\end{array}\right.$ Debitor tos. ought to have it,
(I. D.E. Of whom we formerly bought, or whofe Bills in former Books we accepted, and prefently Booked them, but not due to be paid in chofe Books.
2. E. F. at Conftantinople, my account Currant; for that he hach made me more Returns then my fold Wares did import.
4. F. G. His account Carrant; the credit of which heing heavier then his Debit: but whether it be in Ready-mony, or, for Wares fold upon time, thats not materiall, in refpect of his Ranning-accounts form.
s. G. H. His account of Kerfes, for fo much as was fold upon that account in the former Book: See 36. place.
Durances in Company, $\frac{1}{2}$ for $A, B \cdot \frac{3}{3}$ for B.C. and $\frac{1}{6}$ for me : for fo mach as in the former Book was fold upon that account: See 37 . place, it being compared with this.
Edivard Denis of Northampton, his account at Roan in Framce, in the Adminiftration of P.D. for as mach as the known Sales import. Nota, in the 42 . place, the Factor was made:Debitor to.Stock, for the like fumme: therefore our Stock ftanderh well in the like cafe with others. Again, we have our firt charges done us good unto our Stock in the 40 . place.

Stock Debitor to Voyage to Lisborne, configned unto Redro del Vergo, being in Company, $\frac{1}{1}$ for Robert cliftop, and Partner $\frac{1}{6}$ for Fames $\mathcal{F}$ oyner, and $\frac{1}{2}$ for me $:$ for as much as the known Sales import. You muf conceive, that Pedrodel Vorgo, our account, being in Company, $\frac{1}{3}$ for Rebert Clifton, and Parener; $\frac{1}{6}$ for I.I.and $\frac{1}{5}$ For me: either fandeth, or, fhould fand Debitor to Stock, for the like fumme, that Stock fandech Debiror to the Voyage for the Sales.; for the Voyage cannot have a Credit, bat by one, or more Debitours shat even Counter-poize that Credit.

Phil. I have feen your Dxterity in the handling of the Inveatary-Table, as alfo in the Booking of'a mans koowneftate; bit if a Merchant will not have his eftate known, how are ftall'd, 1 trow.
sch. In fuch difficult Queftions you cannot debarre me, to take the aid of fome Renowned Authors : for ip the firf place of our Dialogue 1 feared my weakneffe, becaufe I frequented not the daily Examination; but although I frequeut not the School, I am yet not ignorant of what the Authors paffages are upon this Sut ject: and therefore I will decide your Queftion, with the Solution of Maiter Henry Waninghen in the firft Chapter; the 17. Queftions anfiwer; his words are thefe: Calh mu/t be entred in place of Stocke, mosking all that is due to us Debitor to Cafh: contrarily, Cafh.Debitor to all them that are to bave of us.

With him (in the very fame words) agreeth his Difciple fönnes Buingha; who now at Amfterdam, after the death of his before-named Mafter,fucceedeth his place in Schoolmafterfhip. See the 38. page of biş Book,printed 1627.
F. Carpenter Gent. in his Moft Excellent Instruition, printed in London 1632. is a direa Imitator of both the former: See fol. 20.24. of his Book: and no mervaile; for the greateft part of his publifhed Book, is nothing elle but a generall copy of Henry $\dot{W}$ aninghens Book, both in words, and number of the Queftions. $\mathcal{F}_{\text {. }}$ C. in his Epiftle to the Reader, pretendech Ignorance, of nor knowing the Author, who in the French Language many years agone was eafie to be found.

Phil. Shew me fome Inftances how they would Book their paflages.
Sch. In briefe I will : and firt,

## OFTHEWARES.



Phil. Suppofe a man at the making oi his, Inventary hath fome mony, how thall he Book that?

Sch. The before-named in the places of their Books mentioned, fay, The Ready-mony is not to be entred, till you disburfe the fame.

Pbil. Suppofe with part of that concealed mony you bought Wares, and with other part, paid them unto whom you are indebted : how enter you that :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Wares,? } \\
& \text { People, }
\end{aligned} \text { Debitor to Calh. }
$$

Pbil. This being thus ${ }^{\text {rerehearfed, } \text {, what will you conclude; have there (think you) di-: }}$ sch. Suppofe they had, what's that to me? But becaufe you mould not flout at me, thinking my capacity to be fo ftupid, that it is void of diftinction, I will in fome brefe notes onely touch the fane.

Firt, let me confider whether the-Book-owner be more indebied then his kitate is wortt; which'if he be, then is cheir enerance good, for his Eftates concealment: for the Debit fide of Cafh ought to be beavieft, or, having no mony, $n$ muft be even, beeaufe all is paidout : but if he have any Eftate, then is the Credit of his Cah (who ftandeth in stocks ftead) heavieft : and therefore an Erronr, being there is more paid, then was received.

Secondly, the commodities that we have at the making of our Inventary, were bought in former Books, and there made Debitors; and that we now enter them again Debtiors to cafh, is tore-buy them : and confequently, in place of book-reforming, book-deforming, and an undefendable Errour:.

Thirdly, the People whom wenow make Debitors to Cafh, are abfolutely our Debitors; and do we pay them, who are to pay us 3 many men would defire to be our Debitors.

Eourthly, As fenfeleffe isit, to make Cafh Debitor to People that are to have of us; will they that are to have of us 100 . $\mathbf{Y}$. for a Bill of Exchange by us accepted, fay, Come m) Friend, you have accepted an Exchange, to pay ar time expired, which is now: fend your man to my houfe, and the mony fhall incoritinently be paid to him ? 1 think nothing leffe.
of Fifthly, Calh may never beot named. Nota, not named, but when money is either truly, and really paid, or, received, as in the 17 .place is mentioned. But if thefe People enter forged Imaginaries in the Fere-fromt of their Books: what is not to be expected before the End?

Sixthly, The Stock which they feek to conceale, is maniteft in the difference of Cath it felf. For let then sranfport their $C a / h$, and they fhall find (if as before is faid, that their Eftateftand well) sthat Cafh is, and in tranfotung forward, alwayes remaineth Credizor. Ballance that $C a j b$, and tell me what fhall be done with the defference. Carry it to a new account, what then? there it will prove to be Stock. Carry it to Profit and Loffe, there it will prove to be Stockes Augmenter. Wonder is it, that thefe and many ocher Forrain breddefects moft now be cloathed in Englihh Attire, and paffe for currant amongt us ! Surely, our Jadgement is weak in the differning of this Art.
$\dot{P} \overline{h i l}$. I perceive their paffages in Booking of their Matters, doth not digeft with you ; is there a more plain way :.difcover that.

Sch. If we were as Exact Difcuf(jors, as we are Imitators; we had not been fobeforted, as to entertain thofe Forrain defects, having better at bome.

Lookinto fiames Peele, whofe well-entrances, through neglecting Age (or dildain of Domeftick Writers; and extolling of Forrain) are as ftrange to os, as though (as the faying is)they were written in Heathen Greek.. He fhewerh us the fit ground-wotk, how to conceale a mans Eftate, in the Booking of his private aceounts, and matters manifefted for Merchandizing.

Pbil. Inftance fome particulars, how to Book the manifefted part.
Sch. You fpeak of part; whether he bring in part, or, All, who can certainly know that : being that we can but Aime at it, as the Blind at the colour of Cloth. And for that which he manifefteth, may be

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\left(\begin{array}{l}
\text { Cafh, } \\
\text { Banck, } \\
\text { Perpetuanes, } \\
\text { Narmadake Man, } \\
\text { Fobn Knoll at Lisborn, my account Proper, }
\end{array}\right.
\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned}
& \text { Debitor unto the } \\
& \text { Private account. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Phil. Suppofe thete is gained upon Wares fould.
síh. Wares Debitor to Private account, for the Gaines; do the like in Factor accounts, and all other, upon which Gaines arifech.

Phil. Suppofe Ilofe by Wares, or Exchanges.
Sch. Private accounc, Debitor to Wares, Exchangès; or, unto that account $\frac{3}{}$ upon which Loffe arifeth.
${ }^{\prime}$ Phil. Cafh, Men, Wares, each mame feverally, Debitor to Generall account for Traffick.

Phil. But if he loft in his Book for Traffick.
Sch. Profit, and Loffe Debitor to Generall account for traffick; becaufe it hath furFendred back leffe, then formerly was confidented unto the fame: Judge of the Gaines likewife, that the Generall account for Traffick yielded more, then the firt in-laid Principall. Here you fee the matter plainly difcur fed. Here you fee the ground-work, by which they are confuted, gathered from one of our omn Nation; which to their mif-entrings might rather have been

> A worthy Refutation, Then, by their Approbation. To bring them to our Nations

But it feeemeth that this Abfurdity (and many more, which upon due Examination of their works apparently $I$ can make appear) was not difcerned, or, being difcerned; how to amend it, Experiense bad not befriended them.

Phil. Rehearfe fome other Inftances of their Mif-entrances; that (for the Reader) they may be as Buoyes in this Sea, to keep him from Ignorances Ship-wrack.

Sch. Very loth am I to pry any further into their Books: for their Adjurdities are many in divers matters. And if I fhould dive into them all, it would be thought that I onely uttered Satyricall Snarlings, where my plain meaning is, to firre them up to a more ferious findy, that the filly beginner be not fruftrate of his Expectation: feeking in them (as one faith)Sapientia, but finding Apedia : therefore let me proceed towards our intended parpofe:
phil. Well ; for this time let as do as you defire: What followeth next to treat of, feeing the Itriventory, with the Dependances (which is the firfe matter whereof the Journall is made) are difcuffed ?

Sch. The fecond matter whereof the Fournall is made, is the next thing in order that we are to treat upon; and proceedeth from

## TRAFFICKESCONTINUALIEXERCISE,

as in the Ninth place is rehearfed: wherein is to be confidered three Principall accounts,
confinting

SProper. 2 Accounts: and each
In
Gectorage
Gempany of thefe again, in'
Domefick-affaires: for fo I terme thore things s which I in actuall Adminiftration, adminiftrate as chiefe Manager in the matter ; whether in Propery Faltorage, or, company accounts.
Forraine-affaires: for fo do I nominate thole matters, that another adminiftratech as chiefe Actor in
the matter, without hand-action of me, or, mine : Factor $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { With the Wares, Bills, } \\ \text { and Monies that I }\end{array}\right.$ and thus do my ——————_—artner $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { fend to him, to be }\end{array}\right.$
 Friend: unto whom I fent my Mafters Wares, becaufe they were not Fendible here, as in the 39. place is expreffed: the faid Friend is to be countable for the Sales thereof to me, and I to my Mafter, with whofe order I fent them thither; he not having any acquaintance with the man, for Trading for that place. Of thefe $I$ intend to treat in order, as they are entred in the aboveftanding Table : but firf I will Book fome exquifite

## Rules of aide, very requifits in Trades continuance, to be learned without Book.

I: Whatfoever commeth untorus (whether Mony, or Wares) for Proper, Factorage, or Company account, the fame is Debitor.
2. Whofoever Promifeth,the Promifer is Debitor.
3. Unto whom We pay (whether with Mony, Wares, Exchanges, Affignations)being for his own accoont : that man is
4. Unto whom we pay (as abote) for another mans account:

The man for whofe account we pay, is Debitor.
5. When we buy Wares for another mans account (whether we pay them ptefently, or not, that is all one in the entrance) and fend them unto him, or anto another by his order.

The man for whole account we bought; and fent them, is for the Wares, and Charges,
6. It we deliver an Affignation unto any man (whether it be our own, or anothers) that man for whofe account we deliver that Affignation in payment, is ———Debitor. NOTA,
This is much like the third Article, but this is here thus entred, becaule this Article is here more largely explained, for the better underftanding of Affignation.
7. When we, or any other man for us, fendeth commodities unto another Land, or Towne, to be Could; for Rrofer or Compatiy account, then is

1. Whatfoever goeth from us (whether Mony, or Wares)for Proper, Factorage, or Company account, the fame is-Credisor:
2. Unto whom we Promife, the Promifed man is

Creditor.

3. Of whom we receive (whether Mony, Wares, Exchanges, Affignations) being for his own account :' that'man is creditor.
4. Of whom we receive (as above) fot another mans account:

The man for whole account we receive.;

5. When we buy for our felves, or for another man, and pay not prefentlys.

The man of whom we bought thofe Wares, is__C._Creditor:
6. Whofoever delivereth an Affignation unto as upon any man,for his own account: the mani of whom we received it, is Creditor.
OR,

Upon whom I deliver mine Affignation, to be paid by him for his own accounc, that man is
OR,

Whofoever (to pleafure, or accommodate me) payeth my Affignation, the accommodating man, is -Creditor.
7. When we receive advice from our Factor, that thofe fent commodities, or pars of them are fould, or loft then is

[^1]Voyage to fuch a place configned to fuch a man ————————————_
8. When we pay Cuftome, Infurance, or other charges upon the fending of thofe commodities, then is

Voyage (as above)————Debitgr.
9. When we caule the fent goods to be infured, but pay it not prefently, then is

Voyage (as above)—————Debitor.
10. When we enfure any mans fent Wares, and receive the mony prefently, then is Cafh———Debitor.
11. When we Infure any mans fent Wares, and receive not the mony prefently, then is the man, for whofe account we Infured thofe Wares,——.....Debitor.
12. When we receive advice, that the former fent Wares, or part of them are fold, then is

The Factor that fold them for our account ——_-Debitor.
13. If any man draw Exchanges upon us for hìmfelf, or for any other man, the man for whofe accoune the fame was drawn, is__———————_Debitor.
14. If we remit Exchanges unto any man, for himfelf, for me, or any other man:

The Factor, If for me, or the man for whofe account it was remitted, is -Depitor.
15. When we lofe by gratuities given, whether great, or fmall, or howfoever, then is Profit and Loffe

Pbil. Having thus placed your Rules of aide, proceed (as was determined) to the firft of your before-mentioned Principall accounts.
sch. The firft nominated Principal! account(for plain apprehenfions fake) I will dijplaj under the form of account

Voyage to fuch a place configned to fuch $a$ man Creditor.
8. Ca h, or charges of Merchandizing is Creditor. Nota, divers Merchants keep fuch an account of charges of Merchandizing, efpecially thofe that have Cafhiers within their own houfe.
9. The Infurer is

Creditor.
10. Infurance-reckoning, ${ }^{7}$

Profit, and Loffe.- Gis Creditor.
Chure of thefe which you pleare.
II. As above- Nota,

Merchants that trade much in this kinde, ufe an account in their Books, called Infu-rance-reckoning.
12. When we receive Returnes, either in Mony or Wares, in lieu of rhofe fould Wares, then is

The Factor that payeth us, or canfethus to be paid, -Greditor.
13. If we draw Exchanges upon any man for himfelf, or for any other man, the man for whofe "account we draw, the fame is ——_Creditor.
14. If any man remitteth Exchanges anto us for himfelf, for me, or for another man ${ }_{5}$

The Factor, if for me, or the man for whofe account the fame was remitted to me is ————Cridtitor.
15. When we gain by gratuities received, whether great, or fmall, or howfoever, then is Profit, and Loffe-Creditor.


Pbil. I buy upon two moneths time a little parcell of Pepper, Ginger, Cloves, or the like; fome one parcell to the value of 1o. $t$ and fome leffe.

Sch. Groceries, Debicor to the Mar of whom I bought them : underfand my meaning, which is not, that I hould make the Commodity Debitor to the Mans fervant, becaufe I bought it of him.; but unto the Principall, or Man, to whom it belongeth, in refpect of my knowledge. Nota, the Entrance of that which I buy, upon 2. Daies,2. Moneths, 2. Years, is all as one: for my acknowledged man mult be known upon my Books, as well for 2. Daies, as for 2. Years.

Phil. Ibuy Latton-wyre upon 3. moneths paying $\frac{1}{6 j}$, part prefently.
sch. Latton-wyre Debitor to the Man Princepall, from whence it came. And then, Mais Principall, Debitor to Cafh, for the $\frac{1}{6}$, part now paid. I enter this thus in $\frac{1}{67}$ parts, becaute fome make the Bought Wares Debitor to the Selling man, for the part upon Time: and Wares Debitor to Canh, for the part paid. Here you fee W ares are divided into two parts, (which is unfeemly) and therefore mult have two Journall parcells: fo chere is every way as much writing, as to make the Wares Debitor to the man for the whole; and then, him Debitor to Cafli for the paid parr. But if I buy feverall Wares to pay $\frac{1}{6 j}$ part in money, what brave divifions would then arife? For each parcell mult have two Debitols, and

Creditors,

Creditors, which will be no fmall crouble; or elfe they muft learn to place their parcels with more jodgment.

Pbil. I buy Cloth upon 9. moneths Time, which is to ride out $\frac{5}{y}$, then to difcount for 6 . moneths: paying for tbem in Banck, and enjoy Banck-monies allowance in hand.
sch. Cloth Debitor to the Man, for the whole coft upon 9. Moneths: and then, the Man Debitor to Cloth for the Difcount; and tben, the Man Debitor to Banck for the fumme writ in: andshen, Cafh Debitor to Profit and Loffe; becaufe the mony by me written in Banck, and the Difcount, counter-vailed the firft Priacipall upon 9.moneths.

Phel. I buy Barly upon 8 .moneths time, difcounting inftantly ; paying part in Mony, patt by Affignement, part with Rye : the remainer in Banck, abating fo muchas the Banckmonies allowance is worth.

Sth. Barly Debitor to the Man, for the whole upon 8. moneths:2. the Man Debitor to Cath for the fumme payd: 3. the Man Debitor unto him, who was to pay my Affignation for his own account : 4. The Man Debitor to Rye, for the delivered value: 5. The Man Debitor to Banck for the fumme made good, either upon his account, or, upon the account of another, by his order: 6. The Man Debitor to Profit, and Loffe, for Banckmonies allowance; becanfe this, and the Banck-mony, make both but one compleat part of payment : but it I had writ in Banck his compleat part of payment, and he made good the mony for Banck allowance to me, by paying it in hand; then muft we eater, Cah Debitor to Profit, and Loffe : 7. The Man Debitor to Barly for the 8. moneths difcount. Nota, Henry Waninghen, Cbapter 2. Queftion 14. entereth the Man Debitor to Profir, and Loffe, tor the dilcount. Pafichier Gooffens, tu $\ddagger$ 手amburgh, printed 1594. parcell 44. 47. and others, entreth the like. Fohannes Buingha, folio 39. 2uffion 7. entreth the iike. F.Carpenter, fol.34. his Booking is with Henry Waninghen the 14 . parcell alike; and "nely an Imitator: and fo of other Authors. But premeditation fheweth, that the Repares of commodities thould not be carried unto Profit, and Loffe, as our printed Authors in generall do, without any further in- fighe into the nature of the matter: For Barly, which before was Barly upon Time, is now become Barly for Ready-monny; which at che buying (in refpect of the Tiune I was to ftand out, and have the ufe of the mony in mine own hands) coft me more then it now will yield me Ready mony; the while chen Barly upon 8. moneths was more chargedat the buying, then it now is worth Contant, reafon requireth that Barly fhould be difcharged, becaufe I have disburfed my mony: See Ralph Handfon upon Abatements in bis Table.

This mult be well regarded in Rebates, to the end, that each Horje may bear his owo Burthen; well noting, that the Rebates are not made good in mony: See Ralph Handfon.
But if we buy fundry commodities, and have an allowance upon the whole buying, then muft we enter,

The man of whom I bought, Debitor to Profit, and Loffa Proper : for no one commodity may enjoy the allowance made upon the whole Cargo,or Parcell; and to make a divifion pro rato, of each commodities Capitall, would be a troublefome (bat true) worke: therefore Profit and Loffe is the briefelt carriage in fuch matters, being the Facis after either of the wayes, redoundeth unto our finall advance for the Abatement. This in briefe.

> Buying $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { For Ready-mony, and prefently pay: See the } 65 \text {.place. } \\ \text { Upon time }\end{array}\right.$
> \{ Upon time, the conditions being feverall : See 66,67,68,69,7c.

## BARTER, ORTRUCKE.

Phil. I buy Wares, for ocher Wares; value being equall.
Sch. In bought Wares(what name foever) Debitor to the Deliverd Wares: this is feldome feen. Bur if writing be not tedious unto us, or we not paper-penurious, the beft, and moft uni-forme Booking (in refpect of the generall verieties) of giving, or receiving of diverfities (being Wares, and Mony, or feverall Wares) is to have the received Wares Debitor to the Trucking Man; and then, the Trucking Man Debitor to the Delivered Wares.

72 Phil. You have related your minde in thimgs of an Equall value; but if I bay Wares paying with other. Wares and Mony.

Sch. Henry Waninghen, Chapter 2. unto the 6. Quffion, anfwereth in Dutch; 'IIgoet
 The Wares that we buy, Debitor to Cafh; afterwards, Cafh Debitor to the Wares that we deliver: as thus, The Wares that I buy are worth 100 . I. and the Wares that I deliver are worth 90 . 1. Confequently, I paying the Marr, he muft have 90.1 . in Wares, and 10.1. in Meny; fo that Cafh is for the 10. 1. paid, more Credit then Debit therefore Cafh hath its doe. With Henry Waningheri agreech $\mathcal{F}$. Carpenter, fol. 2. parcell 8 . as bove; he writech, the goods bought, owe unto Cafh for the whole fumme: .and after,. Call ows eth unto the goods, which you have delivered to the Seller, for the value of them.

Phil. Seeing you Imitate in entring. of their words, have they your Approbation?
Sch. I have relared their words, noc as an affectionate-Follower, but as an admirer of their Imitation. For as in the 17. and 5 r . place by this 3 f faid; Cafla may not be mamed( no not Named) but where Mony is either Reallypaid, or reseived: Nota, and the while that it is abfolurely falfe, that Calh hath in the above-mentioned 72 . place not paid out 100.1. but onely 10.1. nor hath it received any peny of the 90.1 . therefore for the 90.1 . on each fide, I fay Cafh is an AJfe.

Pbil. But in the conclufion, it cometh all to one purpofe.
Sch. That is not meteriall: why many words, when few may fuffice: For $\mathcal{F}$. Carpentef fol. 32 . parcell 7. anfwerech diredf to the number; The gaods which you buy, owe to the Seller: And contrarily, He oweth to Calh, and to the goods which you bave delivered. bim. This is fomewhat like a mans mony: But as in the 7x. place is faid; Idleneffe in writing, or Penorioufneffe in paper, is the caufe of thefe Folly entrances. For not onely in this, but in Exchanges, and the like, becaufe we will not have (as fome terme it) a Book full of wames, we muft have our paffages fmothered 'under the covert of Imaginary obfcuritys wheteas we may have them delectably Booked, if we were not fparing in writing. IDaer en is. met, ;onver veroziet, Nothing without trouble. But I have no time to difcuffe other mens works; theretore let me proceed.

Phtl. I buy Wares, delivering a great value; and receiving the over-ples back in Mony.

Sch. In-bought Wares Debitorto the Selling Man, for their value; 2. The Man Debitor to Delivered Wares, for their value : 3. Cafh Debitor to the Man, for the Received mony, to equall the Trock. So, in brief; it the Wares are of an equall value, then enter Bought Wares, Debitur to the. Trading man: 2. Trading Man Debicor to Delivered Wares; becaufe the value is eqtall. If un-equall, and Mony given; then enter, In-boughe Wares Debitor to the Trad.ng Man: and ihcn, Trading Man Debitor to Deliyered Wares, and to Cafh. But if un-equall, and Mony Received; In-bcught Wares, and Cafh, Debitor to the Trading Man: andtben, Trading Man Debitor to Delivered Wares. And fo I proceed to Wares bought, which are to be

## Delivered mee, 2. 3. Weekes, or Moneths after the agreement.

Phil. I buy Wares, agreeing now for Quantity, and Price; bat am to receive them 2?
Sch. The Promifing Man is.Debitor to Promete-reckoning-
Phrl. I have already by this one parcell conceived, that you digreffe from divers Printed Aathors: for,

Paffchier Goeffens of Braffel,in the German Language. Pieter Nicolaefon Daventrienfis. Fohn willemfon of Leuven.

## Tranfporting of Accounts in the Leager from one Leafe unso another.

Phil. What are the Motives?
Sch. They may be two; the one, when the Leaves of the Leager are full written in the Debitor, or Creditor fide, or both. The other, becaufe the former accounts are concluded, fo that upon foor of that account, generally there remaineth a remainer due to me, or from me; and we will have the account begunne again upon a New Leafe.

Phil. Is this all
sch. Herein again is to be obferved, whether thofe accoubts that are to be Tranfported, be Commsdtter-accounts, which in New leaves are to be continued as upon the former: or, whether they are Ships-parts, Houfes, Rents, Lands, Incerefts, Infurances, Factor-accounts, or the like : of which (for thac time) we make no cftimaiion of Eftate, buc onely a tranfport for Tradings further concinuance, untill a Generall Ballance be made.
phil. How muft Commodities-reckonings ficly be tranfported, to make true Fournal parcells of them ?
sch. In all tranfports (if poffible) muft heedfully be heeded, that not any parcell be pofted with Blinde-jummes, or Blancks, as fome tearme them: that is, Not without Mongfummes. Many in their Books tranfport with Blankes in their Leager, yet have Mony to tranfport, if they had Art to carry them handfomely forwards; to which end obferve the enfuing Documents.

Suppofe the Wares were Cambrix-cloth, and the whole Debitor-fide contained 400. Peeces, which coft 765.1 .8.5. and that the whole fale in the Creditor-fide were 278. Peeces; producing in mony 789.1 .10. $\overline{5}$. Nota, the fe cannot be fubftracted from each other to make Journall parcells, but in the one will be Wares without Mony; and in the other Mony without Wares: which kind of Tranfports are very abfurd, though ufed by many.

Their forme is as this Inftance.


To avoid the above-entred abfurdity of Wares in one Journall parcell, but no Mony; and Mony in the other Journall parcell, buc no Wares: enter as the enfuing Journall inftance inftanceth.

Cambrix-cloth uponfolio 30. Debitor to Cambrix-cloth uponfolio 12. 765. r. 8. $\overline{\text { b. For }}$ the prefent cofts of 400 . Peeces, being the whole Debitor-fide, in Wares, and Mony for want of place tranfported to a new leafe, the mony is $765.1 .8 . \overrightarrow{5}$.

## And then

 for the fales of 278 . Peeces, being the whole Creditor-fide, in Wares, and Mony, tranfported for want of place to a new leafe, the mony being -__-_789.1.10. $\overline{\mathbf{5}}$.

Thus ought each Journall parcell in Wares rranfporting truly to be Journalized, then the Leager will ftand as this enfuing inftance inftanceth.

Fol. 12.


Here you fee the Leager ftand again as formerly it did, to be continued in writing, as before : here you fee each Journall parcell compleately carried: and thas ought Factor-accounts to be croffed : Forrain-mony, under' Forrain-mony, as here Peeces under Peeces : and Inlandifh-mony under Inlandihb-mony, as before is inftanced. Nota, Do the like in Houfes, Lands, Rents, Legacies, Incerefts, Ships-parts, Infurances, and the like : becaufe the principall (by Deduction)hould not be Diminifhed untill the finall finifhing of thofe accounts.

Phil. Is this an ufuall courfe in the tranfporting of all kinds of accounts?
Sch. No: In your Generall accounts with Common-trading-people, as alfo in Cafb, Bank, Stock, Profit and Loffe, or the like: deduct the Leffer. from the Greater, and make a Journall parcell for the difference, as thus :

If the Debitor-fide of any of the above-named accounts (which are to be tranfported)'be heavieft, then for the difference make the

## Neve account Debitor to the old.

If the Creditor-fide be heavieft, then for the difference of any of thofe accounts, make the

## old account Debitor to the Nerb.

Pbil. What Obfervationsarife from hence ?
Sch. Hence is it manifeft, that in the Leager ought to be neither Debitor, nor Creditor, but fuch as have their

## originall from the formall,

whofe proper Office it is, to explain why the one max, or thing is Indebted unto the other, as hereafter in the Explication of the Journall Office fhall appear in the 244. place: and 60 I end with the Third Ground matter, of which the Journall is made.

Phil. Explicate the fourth Ground-matter, of which the Journall is made. Sch. The fourth Member of the 9. place, Gaich, that it proceedeth from the

Equalizing, or, even-making of over, or, under-meafures, Weight, Leackige, Pounds, Ells, or the like.

Phil. Inftance fome matters in Proper-accounts.
sch. When we find any under-meafure in Corn, or Leakage in Wine, or Sbortneffe in Length. then exter, Profit and Loffe Debitor to the wanting. matter; rating it as you pleafe: for that rating neither augmenteth, nor diminiheth your Eftare ; but is onely done for decentneffe, to have mony in the Debit, and Credit of fach Journall parcell:.

Sch. If in weight I find in any commodity leffe by fales, becaufe of drinefs, or the like; enter, $\mathcal{F} \circ$ hn Knoll his accounc Currant, Debitor to $\mathcal{F}$ obn Knoll his account of Saffron: rating them as before, to bring them into the true form of Debitor and Creditor, in Journall and Leager. Hence may eafily be gathered how to deal in Company-accounts; which I now paffe, and fo proceed to the next matter in ordet.

Phil. What Caufes may move a man toa Generall Ballance ?
$S c h$. The fame may be either of thefe three :


Phil. What underftand you by the word Ballance :
sch. By Ballance I underftand, An Equall-making in Equivalent manner all the Open1.ftaxding Leager-accounts; tranfporting all thofe Open-ftanding Leager differences under One laft framed accounts Title, whofe name Generally we call Ballance: for being that that account includeth all the Leagers remaining differences; fo it concludeth with one folely it felf. Nota, the word Ballance feemeth to be borrowed from a pair of Scales: for as true Scales ought neither to be heavier then orher; foa true taked Generall Ballance ought not to differ the leaft naming value : for the Generall Debitor and Credicor muft jufly counter-poize each other in even-monies nomination; elfe, the Book is out of fquare; the fummes illtaken, or amiffe added. In place of the word Ballance, I fhould rather entet Effate-reckoning : for by drawing the whole Book to a head, I draw with one an accoupnt of my Estate. Simon Stevin in his Princely Book-keeping, carrieth the Leagers difference at the Years end, unto the firft begun Stock when he began his Books:but he contraditech himfelf. For he began well the Firft day of January, in making all that owed to him Debitors to Stock; and Stock Debitor to them who were Debt-demanders: but at his Leagers concluding, the 31. of December, he entreth Stock Debitar to his Debitors; and he entreth his Debt-demanders, as Augmentors of his Stock. Such entrances made by him are but a miftake onely; in me they were meer Abfurdities.

Ballance is either a Triall, or True-ballance.

## Of the Tryall-ballance.

Pbil. Relate the manner of making a Tryall-ballance.
Sch. Add the Debitor fummes of all the Leager Un-equall-open-fanding-atconnts upon a Paper together, or in a Book thereto prepared: then, add all the Creditor parcels in the whole Leager together by themfelves, becaule the Uniformity of the Generall Additions fhould be manifefted; if they be to each other equivalent, then (if no whole parcell be left out) are the Journall mony-parcells truely tranfported into the Lea: ger.

Sch. The Tryall-ballance is of two forts: The finf is a Survay (as above) of the Leager
accounts.

8ccounts, fo foon as all the parcells are tranfporred out of the Wafte-book into the Journall, and from thence into the Leager: Nota, before any unfold wares, or Gain, and Lofle of any accounts be meddled witb. Of fuch matter is the firft ballance of the three-fold-mony-ballance in my Great Wafte-Book, printed 1621 at AmAterdamin Englifh, and Dutch; and hall be in this Book.

- pbil. Inftance the fecond fort.
sch. The fecond fort of the Tryall-ballance is feen, when all unfould Wares, and out-landif monies are rated : all Abatements, as. Likewife Gaines or Lofles are known. Of fuch matter is the fecond Three-double mosy-ballance in my Great Wafte-Book; and thall be in this. In this fecond ballance is alfo comprifed the parcells appercaining to the true ballance : elfe, that fecond ballante could not be even weighty.


## Of the True-ballance.

Phil. Proceed to the fame.
Sch. The true-ballance arifert from the Remiainers of Leager accounts; as well in Mony, Unfold Wares, Vogages not wholly fold', Houfes, Lands; People, \&oc. not yet compleatly perfected : and are therefore tranfported to the New-Books, to be there fully finihed: Leaving the old-Books to their perpetuall reft, except fome Scrupulous matter moleft them. Of fuch marrer is the Third ballance of the Threc-double-mony-ballance in my Great Wafte-Book; and fhall be inchis.

## obfervations in ballancing of the <br> Leager.

But for a preparative, firlt note, that even as the Monies, Wares, Voyages, Houfes, Lands, and people were in their accounts (whether Debitors, or Creditors) even (o muft they ftand in your Ballance:, and fo of each other matter. Reafon, for Ballance reprefenteth in that onely account, all that the other reprefent through the whole Book: for if they were Debitors, Ballance is a Debitor in their place: if they were Creditors, Ballance is likewife a Creditor.
phil. Go forwards in this matter.
Sch. There ought to beoblerved $A$ Decent order in Leagers ballancing : that is, Which account ought firft to be concladed, and which laft; both in Debitor and Creditor fide: this is not of Neceffity, but for Decentneffe in Order.

Pbil. Profecute your opinion in the Order.
Sib. Firt, ballance the acconnts of the People of whom you bought : or to whom you fould: Reafon: becaufe all Difcounts, Abatements, Mif-caftings, or Omiffions that have happened, may be rectified : to the endeach account may bear its own burthen: take then the differeace of each mans account (being found to agree) and enter them into your Ballance-Book (as in the 218 . place is mentioned) untill the finall Ballance be found evenweighty.

Pbil. Which next?
Sch. Secondly; ballance the Peoples accounts with whom you had to deal for Exchanges, Affignations, or the like : entring the differences into your Ballance-Book thereunto prepared,

Phil. What fofloweth :
Sch. Thirdly, ballance your Fallors accounts: firt for Prsper, and then for compang, (bur there is no necefficy in this Order, as it faid) the Remainers being well found, your

## 4. VOYAGE.

Debitor.
For 100. Pieces of Cambrix fhipt at 3. I'. each Piece, is-300.l'.-

For Sales of 80. Pieces, ac
2.'.16, है. is - 224.1 l .-

Unfold, 20. Pieces, at
3.I'. per Piece,-————60.l.

Loft by Sales, -- -- $\mathbf{1 6 \%}$.

Phil. Go forward in the order of your Leagers Ballancing.
sch. Fifthly, ballance your Commedities-accounts; firft for Proper:- then, for Company.
Phil. Suppofe thera all fold; and there is Gaines.
Sch. The firt Voyage is a Prefident.
Pbil. Suppofe your Gommodities to be fold in part. Sch. The fecond Voyage is an Inftance.

Pbil. Suppore that none of your Commodities are fold. $S c h$. The third Voyage fleweth the form.

Phil. Suppofe loffe upon the Sale of part of your Commodities, or upon the whole.
Sch. If loffe upon part Sales, the Fourth Voyage is an Inftance: If loffe upon the Sale of a whole parcell: See

THE FORME.

Debitor.
For 16. Butus of Sack coft with charges. 134.1 .8.

Creditor.
For Sale of 16. Butts, at
8. P. 6. is -- 132.Y.16, Loft by the Sale--

Under the name of Commodities in the fecond branch of the 10. place, is incladed Houfes, Lands, Ships-parts; upon which if you will fee the yearly Gain, or Loffe, then rate them as they coft; entring them in Credit as in the fecond Voyage: then, in your Hoafe, and Land will appear what is gained by the Rents, above reparation, and maintaining of them ; and in your Ships parts will be made plain what is advanced by their Voyages, more then her victualling : carrying your Proper Gains or Lofs, to Profit and Lofs pioper ; and Companies Gain, or Lofs, to Profic and Lofs in Company. But if you will ler them run on untill the finall ending of them; then crofs them, as is fhewed in the fecond Inftance of Cambrix-cloth, in the 209. place.

Phil. What followeth next in the Ballanice order?
: sch, Sixthly, ballance your Company Profit and Lofs, imparting to each Parner his due upon fit account and your part upon Profit and Lofs proper.

Seventhly, ballance your Partners account, tran(pering the difference unto your Bal-lance-book (as inxhe 218. place is mentioned) untill the finall ballance be found Eavenweighty.
Eighthly, ballance Cafh, and Bank, carrying their differences to your Ballance-book.
Ninthly, conclude your Profit and Lofs proper, carrying the difference to your Stockaccount.

Tenthly, conclude your Stock-account, tranfporting that difference (which is the
fumme of your Eftate) unco your Ballance-book: thea ought your Ballance accodnt to be equall-weighty.

$$
\operatorname{NOT} A
$$

Having drawnall your Leager to a head in your Billance. Book, and found it to beright taken: then may you take your Journall in hand, and poft them as they in order follow uppon your Ballance-book, unto your Ballance-account in the Leager.
Or if you will not make a Ballance-account in your Leager, you may let your Ballancebook be your private contentment; and tranifport each Ballance-parcell our of the Old Leager into the New: avoiding your Ballance-writing into the Journall, both at the End of the Old Leager; or beginning of the New: entring into the Old Leager the folio whither carried into the New; and in the New Leager the leaff from whence that remainer is brought out of the Old Leager; and fo avoid (perhaps) the writing of two or three hundred Journall-parcels in both Leeagers.

## Particular Obfervations uponeach fide of the true-ballance in $\mathcal{D}$ ebit, and Credts, for the Memories reffefling.

Thil. Rehearfe firt the Obfervations that arife upon the Debitor-fide of the True-ballance.
$s_{c} h_{+}$In a much-Trafficking-Merchants-Books are five things to be tegárded:
$\quad$ People-unto whom we fold, or that have promifed us payment of Ex-
Firfly, of De- changes, or Affignations, and the like.
bitors; and Partners-unto whom we have delivered Mony or Wares, to be by them in

Factors-that ferve us in Cơmmiffron, - who as yet have not given Mafters-whom we ferve in Commif- \}us full Cacisfaction: Again, fion, —__ the firlt of thefe two may arife from Proper, Factorage, or Company: accounts.
Secondly, of the Unfold Wares, formerly fhipt to another Town, or Land, there to be fold for Proper, Factorage, or Company -accoupt.

Thirdly, of Matters as yet remaining UnJold under our own Adminiftration: confifting again in Wares, Houfes, Lands, fereels, ships-payts, and the like : whereof fome of thofe Wares may be for Proper, Faltorage, ot Company-accounts: and thofe Ships-parts for Proper, or Company-accounts.

Fourthly, of the Ready-mony in Caftr, in Bank, or in both.
Lafly, of Company Gain, and Loffe; of the which we Aill keep an open-ftanding-account, becaufe the Company continueth in Trading, upon anchangeable terms. And thefe in fubftance are all that concera the Contents of. Ballances-Debitor-fide.

Phil. Proceed to the oblervations in the Creditor-fide of the True ballance. sch. Four things are heedfally to be regarded.

Firfll, Debs-demanders; and chem in
(People-of whom we bought, as alfo, whofe Exchanges we accep-
:Prople-ted; or whofe Affignments we promifed unto their Creditor, having entred their Creditor into my book in place of them.
Partners-of whom we have received Mony, or Wares, to imploy for Company-account, (unto whom (as yet) we Mafters-whom we ferve in Commif Shave not given foll confion, ___ The laft of thefe LF aifors-that ferve us in Commifion, may arife, either from Proper, Factorage, or Company-accounts. H 2 sccendif,
sccondly, Unifold-Wares, Houfes, Lands, Iemels, Rents, Voyages, and the like: upon which accounts the Gains of Lof's (ar prefent) is not defired to be known; but are deferred untill the finall finifhung of that account, then to know the Generall Gain, ot Lefs upen the fame: and the fe for Proper, fome for Factorage, and fome for Company-accounts.

Thirdly, in Companies Profir and Lofs Reckonings, becaufe the divifion is not made in thefe Old-books, but profecuted untill the Companies finall finifhing.

Laftiy, in Stock-account, whofe difference mult be carried to Ballance; for that difference muft make ycur Ballance-account Eaven-weighty in the Generall Addition: Nota, for in it is contained the trat difference becween the Ready. mony, Wares, Houfos, ofc. Debitors in your Ballance-debic-fide, and the Debr-demarders in the Creditor fide of your Ballance-account. Or more plain; take the whole Debit-fide of your Ballance, deduct from that all that you owe : and the differing mony will be Equall-weighty, with the difference brought from your Stock-account. And chus much of the fifth matter, of which the Journal is made,

## Of the Journalls Form.

Phil. This is the fecond branch in the Eight place: of which let me heare your Explica tion.
$S c h$. The Form is generally in folioz or the full bignefs of the Paper, be ic fmall, or large: Ruled cowards the left-band with one line, and towards the right-band with three: entring between them $\mathbf{l}^{\prime} . \hat{\mathfrak{j}}$. J . as in the Wafte-book is, and in the Journals Inftances fha'l be made plain.

Some ule cwo lines towards the left-band, as doth Simon Stevin in his Princely.book-keeping-Iournall ufe three : entring therein the Day, and Moneth: but that maketh the Journall berween line, and line, too narrow. My manner of my daj, and Moneths entrances thall be fhewed in the Explication of the Journals Office.

This Book is by fome numbred on each leaves-fide : the beginning.fide with 1. the fecond with 2. and fo through all the Book : of which I approve, and ufe it. For in a Greattrafficking. book (as' an Eaff, Weft, Turky, or the like Company) Ceverall fides are ofttimes filled in one day: fo that the Margin of the Leager quotect direttly to the fide of shat Journall-leaf, where the defired parcell is: and fo avoideth the pefufall of needlefle fides.

## Of the Journalls Office.

Phil. Let me know that : for that is the third Notable matter mentioned in the Eighth place.
sch. The Journalls Proper office is, to bave the Matter (thereunto appertaining) entred in Book-keepings true method, whth roords fuitable to the AEtion; plainly expreffing what ever was obfcurely booked in other books.

Book-keepings Office is, to book the acted matter in the true Nomimation of Debitor and Creditor, with the brief (yet plain) Circumftances of the Action. Heedfully in this Journall mult be obferved, that the Debitor, that is, the Man, or Thing, that ought to. be charged, be firt named, and placed towards the left . band, as thus':

Iames Mirth is Debitor.
Then enter the Creditor, Man, or Thing, that ought to be difcharged; as thus James Mirth is Debitor to Iohn Melody.
Unto them annex the quantity of Mony, as thus:
Lames Mirth is Debitor to Kohn Melody 300.I:12.क. 8.ti.
There-unco adde the reafon why the One Man, or Thing is indebted to the other : and this is gathered from the acted matter.

Phil. As how:
$S_{c}$ b. Compare the Waftebook parcels in the 6. place, with the enfuing Journall parcels framed out of them; and the Reafons may appear by the Circumftances.

Dito is Debitor to Profit and Lofs 3. P.i4.8.8. for Bank-mony of gl. 2240.1 I. 4 . pen. at one per centum, is

Edward Denis of Northampoon, bis account by me in Company, is Debitor to Dito Edward ${ }^{\text {bis }}$ account of Ready-mony, 213.1.-5 $\frac{1}{8} \mathbf{d}$. for his $\frac{1}{3}$ of gl. 3834.8. 12 . pen. produat of 18: Laft, 7. Mudde of Company Rye, fold to Iacob Iohnfaxs. às above; $\frac{1}{3}$ thereof is-

Phil. What fignifie thofe Fractions $\frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{3}$, and the like, in the Margine :
sch. Fractions they are none: but fignifying-figures cooncerning the Leager: for the $\mathrm{Fi}-$ gures above the ftroke, fhew upon what Leager-Leafe the Debitors are to be found; and the Figures under the ftroke, point unto the Creditors in the faid Leager.

Pibil. Why are fome pointed, and not other fome?
Sch. Thofe that are pointed, are tranfported into the Leager, the other not.
Thil. Some do not point at all.
$S_{c} b$. They are fabject to mitake, or they muft enter each figure above, and onder, when they hàve entred the parcell into their Leager, and that is tedious. The point's are very requifite to avoid Omiffions, or not to charge one fumme twice, if a man thould be called from his polting.

Phil. When do you enter the figures above, or under the ftroke:
Sch. I lay the Journall open before me, making firtt the Atraight ftrokes that are between the figures againft each parcell, on both fides of the Journall : then do I enter the folio, or leaves, or thore figures, before I toach the Leager.

Phil. How then ?
$S_{c} h_{0}$.Then Fetting my Journall before me, I tranfport all the Debitors and Creditors (that corre(pond upon one Leager-leafe) one after another into the Leager; then removing my hand from the Leager,immediately I fet point by that Debitor, or Creditor, that is pofted into the Leager, without removing of my Journall.

Thus much in brief of the Matter, Form, and office of the<br>fournall mentioned in the nintb place.


6.
185. Ratidoll Rice his account by me in company debitor to Ballance l.991.7.6.8. for fo much due to him upon this account-
186. Hendrick wander Linden $\frac{1}{2}$, fobs van Does $\frac{1}{6}$, F̛aques Reinfts, their account of comntodities; debitor to Ballance 1.194. 12. I. B. for 160: Pieces of Figs, and 4. Bales of Pepper fold, being the whole Wares inCredir, cranfportesd thus to have the account compleat in new books, as it here ftandeth : the mong is- - -
187. Dit Company their account of Ready-mony debitor to Ballance l 99.7.7.0. for conclude due to them
188. Dicta Company their account of Time, debitor to Ballance 1.93.19.8.1. due to them for conclude of this account, being -
189. Ballance debitor to Calf l.947.2.1. $\mathbf{\text { d }}$. and is for fo much by conclude remaining therein, and tranfported, being
190. Profit and Liofs debitor to Stock Y.1046.8.ro. $\mathbf{\phi}$. for gaines in this handle, tranfported to conclude this account, being-
191. Stock debitor to Ballance $\boldsymbol{X}$.2902.12.7.t. For the difference of that account, being my prefent Efface; and,tranfported thither to conclude this, being

## End of the foirnall.

A.
1634.



Aving (in form as is inftanced) entred all the trading-parcels of Merchandizing into the Journallin fuch after-following manner as they daily happened; then hath the Book owner his whole Trading, with all the Circumftances in writing ${ }^{\text {E }}$ but not in fuch forr, that he is able to confer with any man about his accounts : for each mans feverall Parcels are difperfed through the whole Journall; neicher doth it (in drawing an account to a Head upon a Paper) content the mind, fearing that any Parcels might be mif-raken or omitted. Upon the like Reafon we may conjecture the Oblcurity in knowing what mony is in Cafh , what weight, meafure, and quantity of any Commodity might be in the Ware-houfe; what Profis or Loffe there is upon any fort of Wares, or Matter; what Weekly, or Monethly debss are to be received, or payd for Wares, or Exchanges: and many fuch like.

For the avoyding of all fuch diffidences, the Journall Parcels muft be tranfported into the Leager in fuch manner, that all what doth concern one mans particular, muft (under one accounts Title) be gathered together, to wit, all his $\mathcal{D}_{\text {cbit }}$ parcels upon the Left-hand; and ail his Credit parcels upon the Right-hand of the Open lying Leager; of the which many inftances follow in the Leager : the like manner mult be ufed in each fort, as Mony; wares, People, or what ever elfe; each mult be gathered togecher in an Exquifite form, with few words.

The thing charged, or Debitor, mult have its difcharge, or Creditor, even oppofice againft it felfe when the Leager lieth open. In this Leager, where Fol. ftandeth between the lines before the L; both uponthe Right and Leff.hand, are many Arithmetical Characters. The Character, Characters, or Figures that ftand berween the two lines upon the Debitor fide, point (as with a finger) unto the Folio where each feverall lines Crediter ftandeth in the faid Book, whether it be upon the fame Leafe, or elfe.where: Contrarily, the Figures that ftand between the two lines upon the Creditor-fide, point at the Folio where each feverall. lines Debitor

Debitor ftandech in the faid Book, whether upon the fame Leafe or elfe. where.
In Brief,
The Owner, or the Owing thing,
or what-fo ever comes to thee:
upon the Left-band fee theu bring;
For there the fame muft placed be.
But
they unto owhom thou doeff owe,
upon the Right lee thembe fet 5
Or what - 0 -ere doth from thee go,
To place them there do not forget.
This

Book fheweth our true effate in each particular account; whether Boughe, Sold, Sent, or Received, Commodity: People with-in, or withour the Land ; Exchanges which way-fo-ever, and the Coynes of thele Ceverall places; Factorage, Company, or what account elfe belongeth to Traffick: So that the Leager is the Mirrour by which onely the Eftate can truly, and plainly be difcerned.
$\mathrm{O}_{2}$

1634.





SURVEY OF THE Generall-Ballance, or Effate-reckoning. Creditor.

23 Dito. By Banck, as in tol, r,appeareth-

- Dito. By Houfe King David, fol.2. -
- Dito. By Sufanna Pecters Orphans -
- Dito. By foack Pudding my account Currant
- Dito. By French Aqua-vitx 58. Hogfheads fold
- Dito. By Rye, for 16. Laft fold, fol. 3 .

Dito. By Couchaneille, as in fol. 4. -

- Dito. By Brafil, as in fol. 4.
- Dito. By Intereft-reckoning, fol
- Dito. By Profit and Loffe, fol.
- Dito. By Voyage to London, fol fol.
- Dito. By Voyage to Hambrough
- Dito. By Voyage tọ Danfick, fol.
- Dito. By In furance-reckoning, fol. -
- Dito. By Cafh, as appeareth in fol. -
- Dito. By Cambrix-Cloth, fol.
- Dito. By Ship the Rain-bow, fol. -
- Dito. By Hans van Effen my account-
- Dito. By Peeter Braffeur my account-
- Dito. By Fack Fudding at London, his

Dito. By Stock, formy jult Eftate -
Summe gl, --

| Thus oughr your accouncs to ftand at the firlt vi-w of your Books, when each patcel is tranfpoited out of the WafteBook into che Jourmall and Leager. |
| :---: |

Thus oughr your Second; or TriallBallance td ftaod with the Gains.

Thus oughe year True Ballince co fand, which you tranfpote to Netr. Bnoks.


## Afterword

To the reader＇s omm juigment habe been left the many conclusions that are to be drawn from these reproductions of bookkreping＇s earliest exponents．

The author in no sense desired to intrube too strongly bis own ideas upon bis reader．Jit bas been bis intent to shom clearly bow the ideas expressed by 椚acioli in the early Zyalian bernatular came down through many translations into German，into Zutch，into $\mathbb{I}$ rench and lastly into $\mathbb{E}$ nglish， witbstanding all the many changes of language，surniving the ＂卫ark $\mathfrak{A g e s}$＂of bistory and retaining untbanged througb the centuries their clarity of thought and purpose until today the modern bookkepper and the professional accountant are to be found truoging faithfully in the footsteps of the $\mathfrak{y f r a n c i s t a n}$ 15 fiar of medieval times．

32atural prejudice or partiality tomard heralding abroad the imprint left by the early authors of bis mother country on his own profession in its making is to be expected from the writer as an 百ollander＝born and for this reason，if no other， he bas been diffioent to drive bome the conclusions be bimself has formed．Int is deboutly to be hoped that the reader will experience the same pleasure in the reading that the author has taken in the making of this contribution to his fellows．


[^0]:    With the name of God you shall begin to enter into your Journal the first item of your Inventory, that is, the quantity of cash that you possess, and in order to know how to enter this Inventory into the Ledger and Journal, you must make use of the two other expressions (termini); the one called "cash" (cassa) and the other "capital" (cavedale). By cash is understood your property or pocketbook (borscia: from bursa, or bag) ; by capital is understood the entire amount of what you now possess.

    This capital must always be placed as creditor (creditore) in all the principal mercantile Ledgers and Journals and the cash always debtor. Never at any time in the management of your business may cash be creditor, but only debtor unless it balances. For if, in balancing your book, you find that cash is in the credit, it would denote a mistake in the book, as I will remind you hereafter at its proper place. Now this entry ought to be made in the Journal, and ought to be arranged in this way:

[^1]:    $\mathrm{D}_{2}$

